

Childhood Education

ALL CHILDREN LEARN

November 1944

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Childhood Education

*The Magazine for Teachers of Young Children
To Stimulate Thinking Rather Than Advocate Fixed Practice*

Volume 21

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Next Month—

Three articles in next month's issue will develop the theme, "All Children Have Emotions and Feelings." They are: "The Emotions of Children: Their Development and Modification" by Nancy Bayley, research associate, Institute of Child Welfare, University of California; "Helping Children Understand Why They Behave As They Behave" by Dorothy W. Baruch, professor of education, Broadoaks School of Education, Whittier College, California; and "Children With Responsibility" by Aase Gruda Skard, associate professor of education at the teachers graduate school, Trondheim, Norway.

The second section of the issue will be devoted to Christmas. Dr. Marie Quick, Ohio University, Athens, has compiled this material. The contributors and their articles include: Carolyn Crawford, "Books That Emphasize Sharing"; Hester Stephenson, "Woodland Pixies"; Helen Brell, "Making Friends."

EXTRA COPIES—Orders for reprints from this issue must be received by the Standard Press, 920 I. Street, N. W., Washington 1, D. C., by the tenth of the month of issue.

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We Look at Learning

THIS ISSUE OF CHILDHOOD EDUCATION is devoted to children and learning. We have placed Miss Wagoner's article first because it presents theories of learning, points out the fallacies in most of them, and emphasizes the importance of experiences to learning. She tells how studies of animal learning have contributed to our better understanding of the ways children learn; emphasizes the importance of being with children and of studying them if we would know how and what they learn; discusses the functions of punishment, conditioning and growth, and concludes with the statement that learning is both process and result, facilitated or hindered by methods of teaching and previous learning.

Miss Wagoner's concluding statement introduces Winifred Bain's article which immediately follows. Because certain fundamental problems are with all peoples throughout all times and because concepts concerning them develop slowly, teaching must be modified constantly to "suit growing powers and to feed growing interests."

Miss Bain cites some of our persistent problems: maintaining good health; getting along with other people; adjusting to and utilizing natural resources; developing principles and skills for appreciation of and expression in art and for the transmission of our social heritage through family life and education; the finding of ultimate values in philosophy and religion. She points out that our problems evidence themselves in specific ways in different times, different places, and in different individuals according to their maturity and circumstances of life. Consequently, we must know the principles by which problems are solved and be able to interpret their implications for the school curricula, for ways of grouping children, and for ways of determining growth.

What intelligence is, how we attempt to measure it, and what the schools can do in the light of the results are discussed next by Beth Wellman. If we accept Miss Wellman's definition of intelligence, we are challenged to review what Miss Wagoner and Miss Bain say about concepts and learning to determine their relationship to what Miss Wellman says about intelligence.

AND THEN WHAT FOLLOWS? The articles by Amelia Traenkenschuh, Gertrude Hildreth, Alice Miel and her co-workers make practical application of the theories and principles developed in the three first articles to the daily living of children at school. Stephen Corey's article fits between the theory and the practice to highlight both.

If we are what we learn and if people like or dislike us because of the way we use what we have learned, then it is obvious that the teacher's responsibility is to improve the quality of children's experiences through which they learn.—F.M.

There Is No Error In Learning But Errors May Be Learned

Just as every child must do his own growing, so must every child do his own learning and will of necessity make his own mistakes. The challenge to teaching lies in the fact that the better he is taught, the fewer mistakes he will make. Miss Wagoner, professor of child development, Mills College, California, describes methods of learning and shows wherein learning is both a process and a result.

"ALL CHILDREN LEARN" is an epigrammatic way of stating the fact that learning parallels growth. Not only is it true that all children learn; it is equally true also that all children are learning all the time. What they learn and how much may not be identical with what adults intend to teach them. In our intense desire that every child shall learn according to his own need we tend to fabricate an hypothetical child's world which is utopian in that it assumes complete support from the adult world without any interference therefrom. In actual life the world of the child and the world of the adult inevitably intersect at innumerable points. One child's world intersects the worlds of other children also. As a matter of fact these so-called worlds of child and adult cannot be discrete nor would anyone interested in facilitating the learning of children and adults wish them to be. Discussion of learning, however, often implies that children would develop perfectly if they might live without any pressure or restriction from this adult world.

Since childhood provides for growth and learning, adults are essential to the child's world. They are unable, however, to provide a perfect opportunity for development, in part because they themselves are not perfect and in part because the children will not as adults live in the same kind of world in which they grow up. Belief in progress, belief in a constantly improving future is fortunately one of the hardest of perennials.

Not yet have experimental studies of learning—varied, numerous, and extended as they have been—yielded complete theoretical explanation of the development of learning nor have we been able to build upon the theory that we now have a complete, practical guide to educational procedure. Theories of learning are as old as man; verbal instruction is reported to have been of little use to Adam and Eve who, in modern parlance, learned the hard way. Adages and proverbs express theories of learning which have grown up empirically: live and learn; practice makes perfect; if at first you don't succeed, try, try again.

This last statement implies that active response on the part of the learner is essential to learning but leaves out any indication that the practice itself may vary in quality. The children of today are deeply in the debt of Comenius who in the seventeenth century reaffirmed the truth of the statement that learning is not a passive thing. It is not always easy to remember that when we agree that learning comes

by doing we should also be perfectly clear in our minds as to what we expect children to learn and what we intend them to do. Random activity characterizes the young child and the inexperienced performer. Random teaching implies absolute faith that the processes of learning go on in spite of our worst efforts and also that the processes themselves will select the desirable and eliminate the undesirable.

Methods of Learning

Children today are indebted to Comenius not only for his statement of belief in the importance of actual experience in learning but also for his practical application of that belief in the making of textbooks. Compared with contemporary children's books the illustrations of the *Orbis Pictus* are crude and uninteresting. Actually they are monumental as the forerunner of a constantly improving, almost infinite number of illustrations. By derivation the word illustration means to make clear. Pictures do clarify and thus substitute for first hand experience. The omnipresent desire to touch the unfamiliar is an expression of the significance of experience in learning. Pictures enable us to touch the distant and strange with the hand of the mind.

We are indebted also to experimental and observational studies of animal life for much of the knowledge of the processes of learning which by analogy we apply to human learning. Thorndike's cat and puzzle box have lent the weight of venerability to the common notion that learning goes on by trial and error. As a matter of fact it was the trial, the exploratory behavior of the cat, and not the mistakes, the errors, which made it possible for the cat to happen upon the movement or series of movements which freed him from this uncomfortable situation. A sedentary cat or a smug feline probably would be in the original box today. Guthrie has

called attention to the fact that the successful response is selected not because it is followed by reward but rather because it was the response made just prior to the achievement of the desired end. It is the successful movement or set of movements that is significant in learning.

Verbal instruction is effective when it elucidates or extends experience but cannot be a substitute therefor. Fumbling, inexperienced responses are an inevitable part of activity which has not yet become perfect. A good many years ago Sully said that every child must do his own growing; so in like manner every child must do his own learning and will of necessity make his own mistakes. Teaching attempts to prevent as many mistakes as it can, to mitigate others, and to encourage successful responses. To achieve this it is essential that the teacher make sure that the child give his attention to the matter in hand and that he himself avoid and remove confusing or irrelevant elements. "If at first you don't succeed, try, try again" is a bit of folk wisdom which gives the lie to the assumption that mistakes of themselves are essential to learning. Although unfortunately they are inevitable, the necessary factor is the trying again, not the repetition of mistakes.

All educators agree that to learn about children the student must be with children. Some, however, seem to believe that actual experience is in itself an infallible guide, that the student will learn by virtue of his mistakes. The curriculum and practice teaching in particular are arranged as though there were virtue in the actual making of mistakes. The other school of thought which believes that the student will profit more if children's experiences are carefully planned and so adapted to growing skill that fumbling and the consequent mistakes are avoided is committed to a belief that significant learning is based

upon the practice of satisfactory procedure. To anticipate difficulty is economical from the point of view of student as well as child. It has been wisely said that to make a mistake is no disgrace but to make the same mistake again is reprehensible. To supplant the unsuccessful or the less successful response with the more acceptable is of the essence of efficient teaching.

The most useful function of punishment is that of temporarily suppressing the undesirable response while the desired one develops in strength. To do this the punishment must be directly connected not with the undesirable behavior but with the stimuli which elicit that response. The old practice of complementing punishment at school by administering the same kind of punishment at home was more apt to develop a habit of secrecy with regard to unfortunate experiences than to suppress undesirable school behavior.

Obviously certain responses must be eliminated whether they are part of exploratory behavior or, if satisfactory to the individual, are unsatisfactory to the community in which he lives. Negative conditioning through pain eliminates both desirable and undesirable responses although parents and educators have a kind of perennial hope that only the undesirable will be eliminated. Then, too, unlearning is as important in development as is learning. Certainly relearning is difficult and expensive because it involves two processes: namely, wiping out the undesirable and substituting the desirable. Although undesirable behavior may die of inanition, adults find it extraordinarily difficult to trust their judgment as to when they are wise in permitting this. Sometimes thumb sucking would die out if constant reminders regarding the undesirable quality of that behavior did not keep the child's mind so full of the idea that he is compelled to continue. Not always would oblivious-

ness on the part of parents be indicated as the most desirable method for dealing with unpleasant habits, it is true.

Conditioning as a method of learning has been discussed so frequently and at such length that the present consideration must content itself with the mention of conditioning and its importance in learning. Negative adaptation as a method of learning has been less fully explored. As in all other methods of learning the end result may be either fortunate or unfortunate. Whenever stimuli which are meaningless lose their effectiveness in calling forth response, negative adaptation has occurred. This is not to be confused with sensory adaptation. The all too frequent schoolroom odor is due to the latter process but the failure of children to respond to repeated threats which are not backed up by action is an example of the former. The visitor who is disturbed by the legitimate and inevitable noise incidental to an activity program has failed to achieve negative adaptation. On the other hand, the teacher may have become negatively adapted to unnecessary noise which is in reality a hindrance to learning.

Not only does it happen that stimuli which are ignored because they are meaningless lose their power to call forth response, it is also true that stimuli may become increasingly effective through repetition. The teacher who explodes violently on Friday afternoon at some small blunder does so because of the piled up stimulation of minor irritations. "I don't see why she should have been so mad when I only did or said this, that or the other," complains the child. The one who explodes is as aware as the one who endures the explosion that the slight stimulus could not have called it forth but both may fail to appreciate the phenomenon called positive adaptation.

Within the normal environment growth is more influential than early training in the development of behavior but there comes a time when training is effective. Because physiologist and psychologist have not yet been able to ascertain and describe the exact degree of growth we give this state a name and call it "readiness for learning." Were it possible to determine the exact moment when a child is ready to learn a given response enormous waste of energy and enormous amount of pain would be saved.

Readiness to read should make "reading through tears" quite unnecessary. This readiness to learn, however, depends not only upon mental and physical growth but also upon previous experience and upon interest. Yet interest in and of itself is not an infallible criterion. The term individual ability designates a complexity of factors which occurs in any group in almost infinite variety. At the present time our knowledge is insufficient to enable us to present to children at exactly the right moment the perfect opportunity to learn; to acquire habits, attitudes and information, but our will, our intention, is good and we do make progress.

Learning Is Both Process and Result

Learning is both process and result and is facilitated or hindered by the methods of teaching and by the previous learning that has taken place. At the present time less emphasis is placed upon memorization and more importance imputed to enrichment of experience and development of satisfactory habits and attitudes. Binet spoke of memory as the simulator of intelligence. This is a significant observation because school progress is more easily measured in terms of remembered items. Cer-

tainly memory is important and the mind should be stored with poetry and song and beautiful prose which has been learned by heart. Formulae and sequences of operation are memorized in the interests of economy of effect. The touchstone of learning inheres in the use made of the items or series of items entrusted to the memory.

The humanist declares that nothing is so badly taught in college as science; the instructor in science deplores the inadequate style of written work; we all regret that, in spite of the years spent in the study of foreign languages in preparatory school and in college, we lack facility in speaking another language. The teachers of the upper grades complain because the children have not learned to read in the lower grades, and so it goes.

We perceive the flaws in our own learning and in our own teaching; we understand that in the process of learning there are two participants—the learner and the teacher; we realize that what is taught is not always learned and that what is learned does not always correspond exactly to what it was intended to teach. We understand that learning is a continuing process though not always a straight forward progress, that because of human limitation both unlearning and relearning are inevitable components of the entire process and we know that children do not exist in a vacuum nor learn in a vacuum.

The responsibility of teachers and of parents in their teaching function is that of selecting desirable experiences and of protecting children from undesirable ones. These functions, however, are not performed once for all. On the contrary, they must be modified constantly to suit growing powers and to feed growing interests.

Concepts Are a Long Time Growing

Since concepts are a long time growing the important thing is that children learn gradually as they go along as much as they are able at any given time through such experiences as are appropriate to them. "This theory, taken to heart and demonstrated in our schools, would disarm the critics who bombard us with their confused demands that we retrench and beat a retreat to the teachings of the little red school house," concludes Miss Bain, president of Wheelock College, who points out the persistence of some of life's problems and the importance of knowing the principles by which they can be solved.

ALL PEOPLE WORK ON certain fundamental problems throughout their lives and never get them completely solved. This sounds like a commentary on the futility of work. If work on life's fundamental problems is futile, then so too is life itself. And you are saying, "No wonder there's a war on." But think a minute. The very fact that humanity is constantly working on the same problems and always finding that something more can be done about them is basic to all progress. Progress means doing better and better with our problems, using one partial solution to help discover new ones. There is always more to be done for both maintenance of status quo and advancement. Education is progress. It means working continuously on the problems of life at advancing levels of maturity. This process is the basis for continuity of learning.

What are these persistent problems of life which never are wholly solved? A simple illustration lies in the area of health. We cannot say, for instance, "I have my

health; I got that licked up when I was five years old and don't need to do anything more about it." There are always problems of health to be dealt with for individual, family, community, and nation.

Another general area having many problems is that of getting along with other people. Confronted as we are constantly with new situations and new combinations of circumstances, we are constantly working on the diplomatic front from the cradle to the grave. And indeed, the fact that there is a war on leads to the conviction that humanity has made less progress in discovering principles and techniques for solving problems in this area than in any other.

By contrast, science has done much toward helping us solve problems in the area of adjustment to and utilization of natural resources. Progress has been made in developing principles and skills for appreciation and expression in art, for transmission of our social heritage through family life and education, for finding ultimate values in philosophy and religion. There is more to be done and will be for each generation. In this fact lies the hope for progress and the structure of our program of education, for the fabric of education is life itself.

Our problems evidence themselves in different specific ways in different times, different places, and in different individuals according to their maturity and circumstances of life. This fact argues for variety in emphasis and approach but it does not add to the complexity of the situation really. Health again supplies a good illustration. People simply work hardest on those problems known to be hazards in a given time and place. For instance, we

are now deeply concerned as never before about the health hazards in the islands of the South Seas. Our armed forces are there. They are exposed to conditions and infections little known in the United States. Concentrated effort is being put forward to solve the peculiar health problems in that area at this time.

Again, health problems evidence themselves in different ways in cities than in rural areas. Concentration of population in cities demands ordinances which insure pure water supply and pasteurized milk. In many rural areas each family must be vigilant constantly if its members are to be protected from contamination from these two sources. At different ages human beings are subject to different health precautions. Schools and homes for little children must be vigilant about the plain homely regime of feeding, toileting, and rest, and about so-called children's diseases; for adolescents there must be protection from tuberculosis and pneumonia.

Not only do a young child's problems differ from those of an older child or adult in that his hazards and conditions of life are different but due to his immaturity he has limited power for comprehension of them. He accepts them and deals with them as his advancing powers enable him to do so. For this process he, as do we all, needs facts, principles, and abilities. And the key to it is principles variously called concepts or meanings.

True, many facts need to be examined in relationship in order to get meaning from them or to derive principles, and abilities are necessary for practical applications in solving problems. But unless facts have meaning in relation to the situation, they are of small import and except as principles can be derived to apply in many situations we should be floundering constantly with the trial and error method in the midst of our great labyrinth of life's problems making progress, if at all,

only by our accidental successes. Each problem would be attacked afresh with little to bring to it from former experiences. Think for instance what a boost to the problem of water transportation was given by the discovery of the principle of flotation; to health by the germ theory, pasteurization and sterilization; to communication by the principles of electricity.

Why We Should Know the Principles By Which Problems Are Solved

Thinking of such profound concepts takes one a long way from young children and their problems. Or does it? See them sailing boats or throwing stones in the water or drinking milk or talking on the telephone. "Great day in the morning," you say. "They don't need to know microbiology or physics to solve their problems and furthermore the principles involved have been discovered for them. They don't need to do it over." Obviously.

Yet there are two very good reasons for keeping in mind the profound principles by which we work on the major problems of life while helping children to understand the meanings of their experiences and the facts they learn from them. There is sheer enjoyment in knowing the principles by which forces operate. Each concept unlocks the meaning of many phenomena which otherwise would be baffling mysteries or sheer hocus pocus. There is real delight in knowing truth, not in mere facts alone but in generalizations which govern manifestations. Said one mature woman who, after years of study along other lines, had at last spent some time in reading up on electricity for the sake of accuracy in something she was writing, "At last I understand the principle of attraction and repulsion. I never need to feel inferior again in the presence of a dynamo, a telephone, or all manner of other things which used to fill me with awe and confusion."

The other reason for attempting to understand the meaning of things for ourselves and for children is that principles have practical value in solution of problems large and small. They are the tools by which we determine how to behave in many ways even though fortunately for us all many benefits of the work of experts such as radios, telephones, automobiles, and the like can be used and enjoyed by those who do not fully understand the principles by which they operate. Still it can be argued that the clearer the understanding the more chances of solving many problems and of discovering new principles by which people may live better. There is much left to be done by succeeding generations of people who have learned in their childhood and youth to generalize about their experiences and to understand principles back of factual truths.

But such concepts are a long time growing. Just as problems persist throughout life, the understanding of how to deal with them matures gradually as we struggle to overcome the difficulties which they present. Little children should not be expected to comprehend profound principles nor should they be taught to repeat them as so much verbiage with the hope that thus equipped they will enjoy and use them in years to come. This is pretty obvious.

But it is just as true and not so often recognized that little children do form simple generalizations—the beginnings of more profound principles—from the experiences they have and the facts they learn from them: It is warm in the sun and cool in the shade. The sun dries one's swim suit when one comes from the water. The breeze makes one feel cooler while the suit is wet than after it is dry. In winter we wear more clothing to keep ourselves warm. The burning fireplace logs warm the hands after play outside on a winter day. Steam in the radiators makes them sizzle and

pop; it seems to want to get out. Steam makes locomotives go, someone says. How does it do that? A child can go only so far in his understanding at a time but all the earlier generalizations are significant to later and fuller appreciation of evaporation, heat, and energy in relation to sun and earth in our great universe.

Qualifications of Those Who Teach Children

Those of us who work with young children need to be well informed ourselves about the truths by which we solve our problems. We need further to be shrewd in our knowledge of the process by which children learn to add more and more meaning to their simple concepts so that we may respect their worth and help expand them in the direction of ultimate integrity. For unless we do this, two evils may befall: Children may gain false generalizations and prejudice; they may cease to explore and question in widening areas as they should by the heritage of their immaturity.

Young children do not just naturally have the prejudices apparent in youths and adults of different racial stock and social classes but they may easily learn them bit by bit from what may seem to be minor incidents in their lives. A colored child had been in a kindergarten with a white teacher for months when one day prompted by some unknown incident he curiously looked up at her and asked, "Are you white?" Who can say what generalizations grew in the mind of that child about the essential humanness of white as well as black people from succeeding experiences with that teacher and the children in that kindergarten after this initial discovery of differences?

It is fairly clear what chain of concepts was started in the mind of another child, this one a carefully sheltered white youngster who was snatched up by his mother

when discovered patting the bronzed cheek of a child of Japanese descent. "Don't ever touch those dirty little Jap children," she exclaimed with startled emphasis. At least such an emotionalized experience might be expected to rouse the curiosity and vivify succeeding experiences, prejudiced as the child might be.

And children should be curious not only to the extent of verbalizing questions but curious also in exploring problems through widening experiences. It's really hard to down lively youngsters by giving false answers such as "The doctor brought the baby in his satchel . . . yes, sure, the stork gave it to the doctor." Or by saying, "Don't ask so many questions. I'm busy." (Implying you're too young to know and meaning I just can't think how to tell you the part you should know at your age since you can't understand the whole truth.) The thing that dulls the child's real thirst for greater and greater truth is the denial of experience with life's problems through which his normal curiosity is stimulated and his factual knowledge, abilities, and skills are increased.

Teachers of young children, it has been said, need to be shrewd so that they may know how subtly children's immature concepts relate to those larger truths or principles by which man has learned to deal with some of the most difficult problems of life. They need a special skill as well so that they may open new areas of exploration to children, constantly interpreting the meaning of their learnings so that they may lead on to fuller understanding without the loss which comes from faulty concepts and prejudices. How different is this belief from the theory that early grades in school should deal only with the tools and skills of the 3 R's which obviously are needed for digging out more advanced learning in the middle and upper grades.

True, teaching in later years can be more direct especially if fundamental skills

are mastered earlier, but watch for trouble if children come to later years having been drilled in their fundamentals without knowing the meanings of their reading, their numbers, and the things they are expected to write. Danger ahead is the signal to observe also if little children have been trained to faulty notions of the meanings of things in this great and troubled world about them. Teachers of older children cannot safely take direction without inventory of the concepts these youngsters have gained in earlier years. Their patterns of dealing with problems of life are already well begun. This caution is particularly pertinent in these times when so many concepts of human living have been warped for children the world over.

The Implications for School Curricula

That problems persist throughout life argues for a common basis for curricula for all ages, with children and adults working together on the same things but understanding them and coping with them in varying ways because of differing degrees of maturity. If we accept this thesis about the purpose and meaning of education, it is easy to see too that the concepts for dealing with the problems develop gradually and continuously and become dynamic objectives. Not everyone gains complete understanding of all necessary principles in a lifetime. That is the reason we have experts. And since they are working beyond the realm of known truth, we have research workers.

But the fundamentals of our schools lie in the body of known principles which man needs for living adequately in a world of progress. Furthermore it is equally logical to recognize that generalized truth may be learned continuously from a variety of experiences and even diverse factual material. We do not need all to do the same things nor read the same text-

books to come through with the same fundamental meanings. In fact our content and activities should take on different emphasis as problems vary with individuals and communities. The patterned unit of work is just as inappropriate as the meaningless drill of the so-called "formal old school." For example, what school would in these times engage in a Japanese unit with the trappings of kimonos and fluttering fans of yesteryear?

Units of work have no place in our school activities unless they are based on children's real problems of living and have for their objective the better understanding of how to deal with them. Grade placement of topics of study need not and cannot be so exact as once we thought. Physics may well remain in the curricula of high school and college but children will bring many concepts to their study from playing with magnets in the kindergarten, wiring a door bell on the playhouse in the first grade, stringing a telephone system between second and third grade rooms, operating a dynamo with a toy steam engine some time later. The impor-

tant thing is that they learn gradually as they go along as much as they are able at any given time through such experiences as are appropriate to them.

This theory, taken to heart and demonstrated in our schools, would disarm the critics who bombard us with their confused demands that we retrench and beat a retreat to the teachings of the good old little red schoolhouse. When we can really do what we believe in, we can be quite bold in defense of the modern school. For who can dispute the value of helping a new generation to work on its problems of living which no one has solved for it or can? And what can be more logical than that these children learn the ways of working on their problems through gradually gaining an understanding of principles by which to work? Facts and skills though necessary are easy by comparison. Concepts are a long time growing but let the schools glory in a worthwhile task well done when they can produce a generation of children well equipped with fundamental truths.

◆ *Four and A Half*

The griefs of a little boy are forever.
His rages are a deathblow given.
In his throat and eyes the loneliness
Of a small boy is a weather-driven
Ache. Joy in a little boy
Is a hand-bell whirled and ringing.
His delight makes more delight.

Growing, greeting, gathering,
A little boy invents amazing words
For the world. The name of never
Is not one. And watch his eyes.
He knows a humming world-forever
Word but cannot say it yet.

The labors of a little boy are all
In carrying something somewhere else,
And back, and reaching to be tall.
His afternoons and evenings are
Thrust forward against sleep as far
As ingenious eagerness can go.
His mornings never end.

Under trees and skies that never bend
He asks to see, and help, and know.
He dabbles noise and water. Tries
The world's worth by running on
Its grass hard. Trusts. And has not
Time to ask why yesterday is gone.

—JOHN HOLMES in *The Atlantic Monthly*, April 1941.

Some Misconceptions

About Intelligence

What intelligence is and how accurate intelligence tests are have been controversial subjects for many years. In this article Miss Wellman, professor of child psychology at the State University of Iowa gives her opinion and answers some questions: Are there different kinds of intelligence? Is one IQ enough? Is the IQ constant? How can we evaluate children's opportunities in the light of their test results? What can the school do about it?

I HAVE BEEN ASKED TO WRITE AN ARTICLE for CHILDHOOD EDUCATION on some misconceptions about intelligence. As I see it, there are two kinds of misconceptions: (1) those that arise out of inadequate information about the findings obtained in research studies utilizing existing tests, and (2) confusions that come about because different persons have different expectations of what the intelligence tests should measure or different concepts of the meaning of test scores.

Everyone has some idea of what intelligence is, and everyone is entitled to his own definition. As to how valid IQ's are, how adequately they represent the sum total of intelligence, that depends in part on how you conceive what you want them to represent. In my opinion, a common misconception has been to expect too much of an IQ. Some persons have behaved as if they expected one test result on a child to reveal his past, forecast his future and give an indication of how he should function in every conceivable situation.

Americans are in many ways an all-or-none people, educators and psychologists

being no exception. Consequently, when a reaction sets in against expecting too much of an IQ, the tendency has been to move to the other extreme and to expect too little. Because intelligence tests have been found faulty, some persons can see no good in them. Somewhere in the middle ground between these two extremes seems to me to be the most reasonable position. In other words, I believe that intelligence tests fall considerably short of being ideal and infallible, but they are nevertheless useful.

Are There Different Kinds of Intelligence?

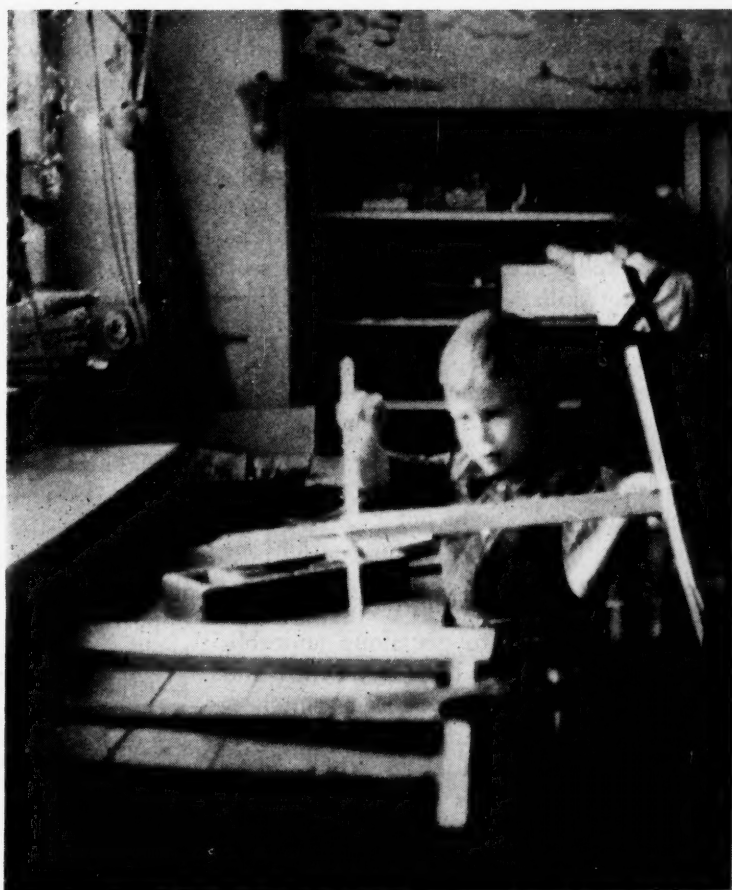
Psychologists have long recognized that the verbal types of intelligence tests do not always do full justice to the thinking and modes of functioning of all children. Therefore they have developed the so-called "performance" tests, which rely less on vocabulary and facility to put ideas into words, but are heavily weighted with items requiring recognition of spatial relations, contours, shapes and puzzle situations and are often highly dependent upon speed of manipulation. Recently, there has been considerable interest in comparing the relative standing of a child on these two types of intelligence tests. There seems to be some evidence that there are different profiles for behavior problem children versus normally adjusted children and for dull normal children versus normal and superior children.

It is often said that existing tests favor city children and fail to do justice to the

rural child. Rural children seem to be particularly handicapped when it comes to speed items, since the tempo of their life does not demand constant practice in performing swiftly. The question is raised as to whether there are operations peculiar to the rural child in which he would do better than the city child if such operations were included among the test items. It is certainly true that the rural child has learned to do certain tasks unfamiliar to the city child. As to whether those operations are indicative of general intelligence, that depends on the definition of intelligence and what the operations entail.

I personally like to think of intelligence as *quality of thinking*, of making abstractions, generalizing, manipulating symbols, applying and adapting information and knowledge to new and different situations. If there are areas of experience in which the rural child has an advantage in thinking, abstracting, generalizing, and making judgments, these eventually should be incorporated among the test items.

So far as existing tests go, there is evidence that children in isolated mountain regions decrease sharply in IQ with increase in age and there is some indication that the same trend is found in rural areas, although the decrease is not so sharp. Younger mountaineer children usually test



Courtesy Louise Gross

Mechanical operations may require a rather high level of those ingredients making up intelligence and should not be overlooked as another source for manifestations of intelligence.

about average or dull normal in intelligence, while older children test on the average from ten to forty points lower. To what extent the decrease would be checked if the tests included better items for rural children is a matter for future investigation. The fact remains that the isolated mountaineer children fail to measure up with city children on the abilities the tests do tap.

Some persons would like to speak of a motor intelligence. Personally, I should not like to push this concept too far, as I am inclined to make a distinction between mere skill in the performance of a

muscular act and the insightfulness, judgment and thinking requisite to the skill. Many feeble-minded persons, institutionalized because of inability to make their way in the world at large, develop a fair degree of skill at baseball, weaving, gardening, and so on. It is a well-established fact that there is little or no relationship between intelligence as measured at present and motor skills. Also it is well established that motor skills are highly specialized; attempts at establishing a general motor ability comparable to general mental ability have so far met with little success. Yet mechanical operations may require a rather high level of those ingredients making up intelligence and should not be overlooked as another source for manifestations of intelligence.

Others like to speak of a social intelligence, the ability to get along amicably with other persons, to understand them and their reactions, and to function intellectually along socially approved lines. They believe that information of this sort is important as well as information about objects and that intellectual demands in this area are also exacting. Very little attention has been paid to this concept in existing intelligence tests.

Is One IQ Enough?

A child's IQ is based upon his performance of certain tasks placed before him. We have already discussed some aspects of the selection of those tasks and their limitations. The quality of his performance is in turn based on three things: (1) what he is capable of learning, (2) the opportunities he has had to learn, and (3) his willingness to give evidence of having learned. In making a diagnosis or in evaluating an IQ it is necessary to weigh the contribution of each of these, and it is well to clear the third point first. With a young child, particularly, the test should be administered in familiar surroundings,

by a person he knows and in whom he feels confidence and under conditions at which he is at ease. In other words, every precaution should be taken to insure that he is doing as well as he can do. Psychologists, teachers or administrators who under circumstances less than this and without supplementary material concerning his previous experiences conclude that a child who makes a low score is incapable of better performance are guilty of malpractice of a serious nature. The life of a child is too precious to make such an important judgment on so little grounds.

Having reassured ourselves that the child's IQ adequately represents what he can do on the test at the present time, we may ask the question, "To what extent is the child's IQ a reflection of what his opportunities have been?" In order to evaluate the influence of opportunities in general, the highlights of some outstanding findings are given briefly here.

First, about foster children. If placed in early infancy in adoptive homes (which are generally above average in socio-economic status and in other respects) foster children are at least average or above average in IQ when measured at the school ages. Usually their true parents are so characterized that it seems reasonably certain that the children would have tested considerably lower had they remained with their true parents. These foster homes represent better opportunities for them.

Second, there is some evidence that children whose mothers are feeble-minded decrease in IQ with age so long as they remain under the mother's care. One study made on this point showed that the younger children were about average in IQ, while the older children tested about as low as their mothers. This trend was checked, however, when the children were removed and placed under better circumstances. Gains were found at all ages.

Third, Negro children transferred from the south to the north have been found to be brighter than those of the same age who spent more time in the south.

These findings and others illustrate three things: (1) the need for realizing that what a child has learned is a function of opportunity for learning as well as of capacity for learning; (2) that the IQ along with other measures is affected; and (3) that there is hope for learning (and for change in IQ) even among the less privileged.

One of the common misconceptions, it seems to me, is that the IQ remains impervious to experiences, even though every other aspect of the child's makeup is markedly affected. This has a bearing on the practice of using an IQ, or mental age, in conjunction with educational achievement tests to determine whether a child is "measuring up to his capacities." The fact is there is no pure and unadulterated measure of capacity. Yet an IQ is useful in furnishing another check on how the child is performing in other ways than are revealed by the achievement tests.

Is The IQ Constant?

Obviously, it was not constant in the above illustrations. But these were extraordinary cases. How about the ordinary child in the average situation? All of the distributions of changes in IQ on retest in the literature show large numbers of children changing in IQ, even when the group average does not change. To cite one example of over a thousand somewhat superior children retested in New York City in somewhat superior schools, fifty-five per cent of the children changed 8 or more points in IQ, some gaining and some losing in IQ. Nearly every distribution of IQ changes in other studies shows a few children changing as much as 40 IQ points. This may happen in your school.

Could anyone have foretold which child would gain 20 points and which would lose 20 points? (Over 180 children in the above schools changed 18 or more points.) There is no safe way to be sure whether or not a child will change in IQ, how much and in what direction. A retest will, however, tell what the change has been and can give a notion of how effective the child's experiences and opportunities have been in the meantime.

How Can We Evaluate Opportunities?

So much has been written and said about socio-economic status and father's occupation in relation to intelligence and achievement that the upper strata have come to be regarded as almost synonymous with "good" homes and the lower strata with "poor" homes. Such overall characterization loses sight of the tremendous range within each occupation. It has been well established that the children whose fathers are in the professional occupations are in general brighter than the children whose fathers are low in the occupational scale. But any group of children from the professions is likely to contain some children of dull-normal and average ability.

If we ask, "Where do bright children come from?" we find that the truth is that they come from all economic strata. Actually, numerically fewer bright children come from the professions than from other occupations. This is a statistical necessity, if for no other reason than that there are more bright children in the United States than there are children in the professional occupations. Terman and Merrill's distribution of IQ's in their latest Binet standardization show that about eight per cent of the children tested 125 IQ and above, while only about three per cent of men in the 1930 census were in the professions. If every child in the professions tested 125 or above, which is not the case, there would still be nearly twice

as many bright children outside the professional occupations as in.

Obviously socio-economic status is only roughly equivalent to opportunity for intellectual growth. What goes on within the foster homes that makes them superior? What happened within the homes maintained by feeble-minded mothers to make the environment inferior to the boarding homes in which the children were subsequently placed? Why was the atmosphere in the north conducive to intellectual growth of the Negroes? The full answers to these questions will take years of investigation. So far, most of the studies have been devoted to group comparisons without too much attention to individual differences within the groups. Yet many hints as to possibilities for individuals are contained in the group trends.

What Can the School Do About It?

Can the school hope to accomplish anything when home influences are so strong? The school can of course try to understand the home and to work with it. The illustrations given so far have been on home influences, but there is considerable evidence that schooling, at the preschool ages particularly, can influence IQ, and there is some evidence of similar nature at the older ages. When all of the investigations in the literature are considered together, it is found that the average child attending preschool for one year gains about 5 points in IQ on the Binet scales, while the average nonpreschool child does not gain. Over a two-year period the preschool gains are greater. On the Merrill-Palmer scale of performance tests the gains are apparently larger and nonpreschool groups also tend to gain some on retest. Here the schools are adding to the intellectual stature of children already

bright when they enter preschool.

Here and there a few training programs have been inaugurated expressly to provide intellectual stimulation for older children who have been less privileged and the programs have been successful in raising the IQ's of these duller children. In the training of duller children there are two ways of approaching the problem. The first is to find out in what areas the child has some degree of skill and to build upon his success by emphasizing and accentuating these areas in his training. Unfortunately, this is the approach often used.

The other approach tries to build him up in areas in which he is weak. This takes skill and insight and careful planning to adapt the training to the individual or it will fail. It is based on the philosophy that all children can learn and that because a child is low in IQ now he is not necessarily doomed. The training programs successful in raising the IQ's of duller children date back to Binet himself. They seem to be based on certain common principles: (1) they study each individual and adapt the training to him; (2) they begin at the extremely simple and make sure the foundation steps are mastered; (3) they adopt an attitude of hope and attempt to convey this attitude to the child so that he too has hope; (4) they help the child to think through for himself rather than to carry out an operation that someone else has thought through.

Every dull child entering school offers a challenge and an opportunity to see what can be done to change him. Every bright child offers a challenge and an opportunity to keep him functioning at that high level and to harness his abilities so that he and others derive the greatest satisfactions. The school cannot be one hundred per cent successful, but it can aim high.

We Are What We Learn

"At any one time a youngster 'is' what he has learned to 'do' to satisfy his desires." The way in which this learning to "be" what we "are" takes place is described by Mr. Corey who is professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago.

DURING THE PAST SEVERAL WEEKS I have been asking elementary school teachers to describe the outstanding characteristics of children who had impressed them most favorably. The answers given were thoughtful and the teachers named a great number of "desirable" traits and characteristics of boys and girls. Some of these children were reported to have had good manners; they were courteous, considerate and thoughtful; others were excellent workers; some were responsible; others got along very well with their peers; some were outstandingly neat; some had "constructive" attitudes or good ideas or mature habits or attractive personalities.

The thing that interested me most about the characteristics that impressed teachers favorably was that almost without exception everything named had been learned. Reference was made rarely to sheer physical attractiveness or to the color of a child's eyes or hair or to the shape of his hands or feet or body or, interestingly enough, to presumable "innate" learning ability or intelligence. Almost always these teachers stated that the most outstanding things about the boys and girls they liked had resulted from the children's experiences.

Practically the same thing happened when I asked teachers to describe the outstanding characteristics of boys and girls to whom they were least attracted. Again, most of the descriptions were of the way the children acted, their manners, their

ideas, their attitudes, the way they took care of themselves. Almost never did a teacher describe as the outstanding "undesirable" characteristic a youngster's physical appearance or anything else that might be attributed to growth or maturational factors primarily.

At various times I have asked the same question of children trying to find out what it is about their peers or about children not in their own age group that impressed them most favorably or unfavorably. While there is a greater tendency for immature people to be influenced by physical characteristics, even the children described other children whom they liked or disliked in terms of the way these other children behave, in terms of their attitudes, their ideas, their points of view, the way they "treat" people or animals or things.

The effect these children have upon one another and upon their teachers is by and large what these children are. The answers I got to the questions I asked merely illustrated that within very wide limits the way other people react to us is a consequence of what we have learned. This learning to be what we are is an interesting activity. We are at it most of the time. The process goes something like this:

First, *we want something*. If there were no things we wanted, we would just sit still and vegetate. Some kinds of idiots do.

Normal children, though, want many things. Their desires are numerous and such boys and girls are active most of the time they are awake, seeking certain wants. The very young child keeps at it so constantly that he is about the most dynamic thing that can be imagined. He is always going here, there or yonder, doing this or

that in order to get something. What he wants may be attention or a toy or food or comfort.

Second, *something interferes*. Whenever children, or adults either for that matter, can proceed directly to getting what they want, they do so. The only reason they learn or change their behavior is that something interferes and makes it impossible for them to achieve their wants or to reach their goals otherwise. If the child in school cannot get the recognition he wants from his peers or if he cannot get the ideas that he wants from a printed page or if the teacher does not pay as much attention to him as he wants or if his parents do not give him enough affection, he proceeds to do things differently.

These interferences, these conditions that keep us from satisfying our desires may be of a variety of types. Sometimes it is a physical object that comes between a youngster and what he wants—it may be a fence. Other times the interference is less tangible. He may not get attention from boys of his own age because of certain things that he does. He may be a "show off." This way of behaving interferes with the satisfaction of one of his desires.

Third, *we try out this and that*. When a child cannot get what he wants because of some interference, whether it be material or otherwise, he proceeds to try out this or that *other* way of behaving in the hope that it will bring him satisfaction. Usually the way a child acts "trying out" this or that *other* way of behaving in the illustrates a certain sequence. The kindergarten girl who feels that her teacher is not paying enough attention to her is apt to resort first to certain habits she learned "worked" in her dealing with other adults, especially her parents. She may smile obviously at the teacher or walk up to where she is or take hold of her skirt and tug or frankly call out for more attention.

The point is that when a human being finds himself in a position where his wants are not satisfied the first thing he is apt to do is call upon behavior that was effective under somewhat similar circumstances in the past. When these older ways of behaving are not successful, the normal human being resorts to a more or less limited use of his imagination. This is sometimes called problem solving. The child will create some new organization of his old behavior patterns which he "imagines" may help him get what he wants. He may try this scheme out "in his head." This represents a great saving. He may take a cue from something he has seen.

The kindergarten child who yearned for more attention from her teacher may note, after realizing that her teacher is different from her parents, that the children that seem to be favored are the ones who sit prettily in their chairs with their hands folded. The girl we are talking about may try that. If she succeeds and gets more attention from the teacher she may learn to sit with hands folded for long periods.

It is at this stage of "trying things out" that teachers come in handy. Many conditions determine the randomness of a child's attempts to hit upon some way of behaving that will get him what he wants and, in the long run, make him what he is. Intelligent children are more apt to benefit from their past experiences in choosing appropriate ways of behaving than are dull children. Adults who are around children constantly attempt to "help" so as to save the youngster the storm and stress that comes from trying out many things that do not work. All the schoolroom amounts to is a place where teachers spend most of their time suggesting things boys and girls can do to satisfy their wants more expeditiously.

This is true whether the school is conservative or reactionary or radical. The most conservative or reactionary teacher

Photograph by
Catherine Millett

Almost always the teachers stated that the most outstanding things about boys and girls they liked had resulted from the children's experiences.



in a school system can do nothing but suggest to boys and girls things they should do in order to enable them to attain what they want. The difficulty with the reactionary teacher is that what she suggests often is not reasonably related *in the mind of the youngster* to what he wants. The relationship is there only because the teacher and the school force it. The youngster understands that unless he learns how to spell twenty words he will not have the peace and quiet and freedom to play that he really values. Be that as it may, he does whatever he does in school in order to get something he wants.

Frequently, because children's discernment is even more limited than that of adults, a boy or girl "learns" ways of doing things that actually interfere with the satisfaction of his larger wants. For the immediate satisfaction that comes from habitually running to his mother when a

neighbor boy attacks him, the seven-year-old may preclude the reputation for being brave that he will greatly want two years later. We adults learn to do the wrong thing too in this sense. Some of us have gotten such great satisfaction from expressing our ideas in words that we have learned to do this and have not spent much time trying to put our ideas into action.

At any one time a youngster *is* what he has learned to *do* to satisfy his desires. If he sulks or spells well or is courteous or fights constantly or is impudent to the teacher or gives the correct dates for the Punic Wars he does so because in the past such behavior has brought some reward. As he has sought to satisfy this or that desire he has tried out a great variety of behavior. Some of it has seemed to him to work. He does it again. This way of acting soon is a part of him.

Fitting the Curriculum to the Child

"Is education in our public schools fitting young people to earn a living, to be intelligent and useful citizens, to lead satisfying lives, and to enjoy their leisure periods?" This question is a vital one to which there are many answers, depending upon the point of view of the person replying. The importance of the school curricula in contributing a positive answer to this question is discussed by Miss Traenkenschuh who is director of curriculum and instruction in the Rock Island, Illinois, public schools.

A FEW YEARS AGO a woman who is active in our national life addressed these questions to educators engaged in public school work: "Is education in our public schools fitting young people to earn a living, to be intelligent and useful citizens, to lead satisfying lives, and to enjoy their leisure periods?"

If we were to call upon any self-respecting school executive to answer these questions, he would surely say that education in the modern school is moving forward, and that it is helping girls and boys to live intelligent and useful lives now and in the future.

The opinion of a parent who received his training in a conservative school twenty-five or more years ago should be considered. If he had been successful as a student in that school and has also been a business success, he will probably feel that the modern school is going backward, that too much freedom is allowed children.

The fundamentalist, be he teacher or parent, who believes that the prime purpose of the schools is to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic has an opinion.

According to his belief, all pupils entering a new grade in September should be able to do all the work of that grade and, as a high school principal recently expressed it, it would greatly simplify scheduling of pupils if they could do no more than the work of the grade! His answer would be that schools are rapidly backsliding on a path greased with soft pedagogy.

This diversity of opinion, of fact, and of wishful thinking as expressed in these probable answers shows the complexity of the problem of building curricula for a modern school which will meet the needs of children and satisfy all members of a community. There are in many local communities intelligent, forward looking individuals who are earnestly attempting to develop curricular which will meet the needs and interests of the children here and now and prepare them to be good citizens in the on-going life of society. In these men and women lies the hope of education for American children.

True democracy is based upon a faith in the masses to work out what for them is the best way of life. In a like manner the development of curricula for democratic living must be based upon a faith in teachers, parents, pupils, and administrators working cooperatively and understandingly for the child. The key person in the group is the teacher. There may be an elaborately planned and printed course of study, but it will become the curriculum and can be taught effectively only as the teacher understands it and by means of the methods used to develop it with boys and girls.

How Children Learn

It is true of those who plan curricula that the direction in which they are traveling is more important than their place in the procession. If they are thinking and planning in the direction of a series of experiences which will help children to interpret life about them as well as to interpret the printed page with understanding, the individual child will have opportunities presented which will guide him toward a thinking, self-directing individual in a democracy. Should the curriculum be planned with the major emphasis upon the mastery of isolated academic subjects, the result may be mathematicians lacking economic understanding or social sense, and readers unaware of the implications of what they read.

If we accept the fact that maturation is a biological process and a pre-requisite to learning, we must consider how a child grows. If every child grew at regular mathematically measured stages, planning curricula would be simplified. Could a pattern which would serve as a measuring rod be found which would record stages of growth for every child alike, the task for the teacher would be less complex, and life with children less challenging and less interesting. Take a careful look at an average second grade group of thirty-five children. There may be a range of eight years in mental ages, a variation of several inches in height, great variation in weight and a considerable range in dental development. Among a group of eleven- to twelve-year-olds, the differences may be greatly pronounced.

The interests of all members of the group will be different and interest is an index to maturity. One eleven-year-old girl may enjoy playing with dolls and seek companionship among younger girls. Another may be ready to assume leadership in her group and may choose her associates

among older girls. The one would select reading which would interest girls two years younger; the other, books approaching an adult level.

While norms and averages for various chronological and mental age groups may be set, the fact remains that individual differences and rates of individual growth must be considered by those who are responsible for methods and materials of instruction. This method does not presuppose an opportunistic curriculum but does demand an understanding of the children with whom a teacher works from day to day. A knowledge of materials ranging approximately two years under and two or three years above the average of the class being taught is also essential. An understanding of the community is an essential factor to success.

The experience method is slow. The development of concepts cannot be hurried. One does not learn to live effectively in a democracy simply by reading history. Democratic living must be practiced in the classroom, in the home, and in the community. A child cannot be given a pattern cut to fit every situation, but by helping him learn the technique of living intelligently and peaceably with others, he can learn to make fair and wise decisions and as he grows, to steer his course as wisely as possible through life. Because this is a slow method, if one is teaching in a community where the prescribed course of study requires the completion of a given number of textbook pages each term, only the strongly academically minded pupils will retain permanently much of the attempted learning. What children really learn when we move too rapidly is the habit of ineffective workmanship and not the joy of mastery.

How Should Curricula Be Built?

Successful curricula can be built only through the cooperative intelligent efforts

of those who have a keen interest in and a sympathetic understanding of boys and girls. Parents, teachers, supervisors, administrators, and children directly and indirectly influence the educational activities which are provided in American schools. The contributing influences may be positive or negative, helpful or hindering. They may help children to develop to the full fruition of their native powers or blight their interest in and enthusiasm for those activities which will train them for democratic citizenship.

The parent, the teacher, the administrator must be willing to accept children as they are: Mary with an IQ of seventy-five and a meager background of experience; John with an IQ of 120 and a third grade reading level as measured by standard tests, while the average of his classmates read fifth grade material, and Harry with an IQ of 140 who is well-adjusted socially and whose achievement is superior. The recognition of these differences is only the beginning. The parent, teacher, and administrator must consider these factors when planning how and what the children of a group should learn.

All agencies enlisted in the building of curricula must subscribe to a common philosophy of child training. They must accept the basic principles underlying the accepted philosophy and use them as guides in planning the learning activities of the children for whom they are responsible. This acceptance must be actual and sincere not simply a verbal expression of the thought.

Teachers, supervisors, and administrators are professionally trained and should lead those who build curricula. They should first develop for the educational institution they serve a philosophy of education to which they can subscribe and which will guide them in their thinking in planning curricula with others of the community. Teachers who accept a phi-

losophy of education as a guide for their thinking, a philosophy by which they can live from day to day, will not ask for recipes to meet each individual situation. The activities of the classroom will be evaluated on the basis of their integration with the accepted principles.

Educators who develop a working philosophy for their educational institutions think of the school as one of many worthwhile community agencies. The activities of the school must consider the child in his local community and in the broader aspect of citizenship in a nation. The educator must be sensitive to the life of his community. He must become a part of it. He must talk, work, and play with parents and other adult members of the community if he is to be successful in developing a wholesome, workable philosophy of education by which he can guide the children under his care.

The accepted philosophy of a school will affect all its activities; the kind and amount of subject matter to be taught; the methods used in instruction, grading and promotion. The kind and amount of subject matter should be carefully evaluated and its place in the curriculum selected primarily on the basis of its value in developing thinking, useful citizens in a democracy. A general curriculum should be planned which will allow for modification to individual and small group needs. This may involve grouping for special instruction in academic skills, in interest activities or in caring for physical needs.

The working philosophy of each school system will determine the kind of grading or evaluation method used. If the accepted belief emphasizes the value of the individual child, he will be encouraged to better his own accomplishments rather than bend all his efforts to excel his classmates. If the major emphasis is on academic achievement, a rigid grading system will

be used and promotion will be upon the scores secured during the school year.

Administrators and supervisors must free teachers to adjust the planned curriculum to meet the needs and interests of their pupils. Flexibility of the program must be assured. This involves mutual respect and faith in the ability and integrity of co-workers. Children will grow where such mutual trust and respect exist among the members of a teaching staff. This will assure a flexible program and courage to experiment for the good of boys and girls. When the need arises, careful guidance and help should be offered to teachers by the supervisory staff to insure maximum accomplishment and to safeguard the rights of boys and girls to the best educational opportunities offered by the community.

The professional teacher welcomes an opportunity to serve on a curriculum committee, to take an active part with others in working on a common problem, of searching for improved means of helping boys and girls. She is alert to the needs of the children in her group and adjusts methods to meet these needs. When Sally having learned to recognize the words in the primer asked if that was the way people learned to read all books, the alert teacher knew that this six-year-old was ready for the next step in learning to read.

Carolyn's minister father had been a missionary to China. When she was in third grade, she discovered a book about China among those in the library. Her interest in the subject became a springboard for seven other children in her group to learn about China. Working materials were secured for them, and a study of China was carried on effectively by these eight children.

Then there was thirteen-year-old George, one of a number of socially maladjusted children in a special reading class. George, by virtue of natural qualities of leadership, was frequently the spokesman for

his group. Near the close of a term, when serious consideration was being given by the staff to the problem of the next step for these children, George unexpectedly voiced a solution. He informed the visiting supervisor that the boys in the group had been talking about the matter and they wanted to stay in the special class the rest of the year because they wanted to learn to read. They had set their goal of accomplishment by the close of the year at third grade reading level and were very eager to reach it.

No school can progress faster than its community is willing to go. The attitude of parents can make or break a well-planned educationally defensible program. To invite a few laymen to become active members of a curriculum committee composed very largely of professionally trained people has proved impractical for the average school system. The selection of the proper laymen for the committee would be difficult.

Adult members of a community, however, do have a part in building curricula. Parents' meetings where school leaders are present to discuss with parents present educational practices and to consider suggestions are helpful. The leadership for such meetings should be in the hands of persons who have an intelligent and an objective viewpoint. Parents should be welcomed to the classroom to visit regular class sessions. They will become familiar with what and how their children are learning and will be better able to evaluate the program.

When is a Curriculum a Good One?

The value of curricula can be judged by the evidences of growth on the part of children. Some forms of learning can be judged by objective measures, others must be evaluated through subjective means. If training girls and boys for good citizenship is the goal of education, the success of the curriculum can be judged by the activities

of children in the classroom, on the playground, and in the community. Are children interested in and achieving in the academic program of the school, each according to his ability? Are they learning to read with understanding and pleasure? Have they learned to analyze and think through a problem? Are the children willing to discuss and evaluate a problem with their classmates giving due and intelligent consideration to each expressed opinion? Is there an atmosphere of industry and good fellowship in the group? Is there a sharing of responsibility for the planning and success of a project? Are there evidences in a neighborhood adjoining a school that personal and public property rights are being respected? Is there evidence of religious and race tolerance? Is the relationship between the home, school, and community at large one of mutual understanding, respect, and cooperation?

One criticism which is expressed against the modern curricula is that they allow too much freedom of thought, expression, and physical movements of the child; that

the children are permitted to flit from activity to activity without completing a task. It is true that children possess freedom of expression to a high degree. The majority possess this constitutional right before they enter school.

The goal of modern education is to help children understand that doing a piece of work thoroughly is a part of good citizenship. Children are frequently permitted freedom in the choice of an activity or problem, but when it is selected they should be held responsible for its accomplishment.

The challenge to those who build curricula is to plan activities that will help children to live at peace with their neighbors—neighbors who are becoming more and more immediate. The type of personality who feels that close neighbors suffocate him will have to learn to get along with others. This kind of adjustment is extremely difficult for some, but the wide open spaces are becoming more crowded. There is a distinct challenge to the schools to meet this problem.

Truth Versus "Let's Pretend"

EVERY NIGHT at prayer time I invoke a special blessing on teachers. Tabitha's kindergarten teacher called the other day. "We shall be very sorry to lose you from our community," said Miss Baird, "but how proud you must be to be joining a daughter who is doing such heroic service with the Red Cross in France!"

With a sinking heart I told her that Tabitha was my only child and that we had no thought of leaving our lovely, secure, little community. Other startling items were revealed and we earnestly discussed over-fertile imaginations. Then we planned direction for Tabitha's—a plan patterned on Miss Baird's own experience at exactly the same age.

That afternoon, according to suggestion, young daughter and I went shopping. She had her own purse with a dime, two nickels, and five pennies in it. That is a lot of money for a five-year-old, and every bit of it was to

be spent for a beautiful book with blank pages. She chose a blue one with "Desk Private" in gold letters on it.

We had talked matters over very happily and had agreed perfectly that some thoughts were for telling and some for putting in a book. Take *Timothy's House*, for instance. Naturally, he didn't really make a fireplace out of a matchbox or sleep in a pocketbook with a hole cut through for his tail! Telling thoughts must be oh so true as true. Written down thoughts could be as full of pretend as ever we pleased.

AND SO BEGAN the *Adventures of Sister*, written from Tabitha's dictation. Some day, as a successful writer of fiction—well, who knows? Whatever she does of any value will be because of Miss Baird. Meanwhile, Tabitha tells the truth.—Contributed by MAUDE BURBANK HARDING, School of Education, Boston University.



Courtesy Louise Gross

By GERTRUDE HILDRETH

Learning Through Experiences In First Grade

What are the kinds of experiences through which six-year-olds learn most in terms of their own best development? How can we know that the experiences we provide them are the right ones? Does an experience curriculum provide for the learning of the three R's? These are some of the questions answered by Miss Hildreth who is psychologist at Lincoln-Horace Mann School, Teachers College, Columbia University.

AT SIX YEARS OF AGE most children are ready for the broader intellectual and social experiences that only a vital school program can supply. Their urgent "what" and "why" questions demand answers. They want to know how everything works, where common things in their environment come from, how various things are made, what effect their actions will have on the materials they work and play with.

Children of this age experiment in their play hours with everything that comes to hand.

One young boy built a bridge with shiny steel piers from the cans of tinned goods in the pantry, after first carefully removing the fancy labels. All year long his mother never knew whether she was opening peaches or string beans. Another child stirred up a mixture of tooth powder, shoe white and warm water in a mug, then announced to his astonished grandmother, "Here's some poison for Hitler." A little girl inquired, "Why doesn't my spoon leave a hole in my cocoa when I take it out?"

These six-year-olds enter school filled with curiosity about the throbbing world they live in, ready for more expert guidance in their experiments and explorations. Too often they have asked for bread and been given a stone. Instead of their questions being answered, these eager youngsters are ordered to be quiet. Too often the lesson learning that goes on within the four walls of the schoolroom is meaningless because it deals with abstractions instead of the live firsthand experiences these children crave. The textbook lessons fall flat because the children have no apperceptive background for learning abstractions with understanding. The word symbols too often express the teacher's ideas, not the children's. The numbers on the flashcards are so much mumbo-jumbo that has no counterpart in anything real.

The Experience Curriculum for Readiness

Teachers everywhere are becoming aware that learning through experiences is the only proper introduction to school life, the only means of preserving continuity between the child's home life as well as his preschool and kindergarten experiences. Continuity is essential to insure wholesome development. Entering school in itself con-

stitutes something of an emotional shock to many youngsters who have never gone to school before. The mere fact of going to school the first year is a learning problem all in itself.

The six-year-old has many new adjustments to make and a bewildering array of new impressions to assimilate rapidly. A six-year-old during his first week in school disappeared one morning and could not be found. Eventually he emerged from recesses in the school's sub-basement where he had gone to explore on his own account. Instead of administering punishment, the teacher added a new subject to the curriculum then and there—exploration of our school.

A little girl felt more comfortable when she had brought her mother's old skirt and shoes to school so that she could dress up to play mother. The teacher did not forbid this play as "time wasting" but with the children's help equipped a corner for "playing house" at suitable times.

Another justification for activity teaching is that it gives more scope for play. The play way is the child's true way of learning. It is through play that he comes into fullest contact with his environment and acquires knowledge about things. In his play he is continuously solving problems and working out projects that he selects and plans himself. By that very fact, the problems he works out in his play fit his mentality. While he appears to be playing he is often working seriously with a tenacity that is truly amazing.

The experience curriculum insures readiness for learning at school in two ways: first, through occupying children's time during the first months at school with activities rather than formal book work; in the second place, by supplying through those very activities, the background which gives meaning to new skills and concepts.

To learn in the true sense, children at this early age need firsthand experiencing.

Furthermore, to gain new skills or ideas from the experiences requires meeting the problem many times over in a wide variety of situations. Among these skills may be learning to put things away in their places, telling time or counting things correctly. The new concepts developed may be understanding how ice is formed, how birds build their houses, or the meaning of one half. Children's immature conceptions of time and space, quantity, cause and effect become straightened out through ever-widening contact with things and forces in the environment.

Through the experience curriculum in the first grade, the children can actively try out their powers by experimenting, planning, questioning, dramatizing, and expressing their creative ideas with all sorts of materials. Even at this early age they can learn to think for themselves instead of depending on the teacher to do their thinking for them. The physical activity involved in learning through experience is in itself a major advantage for the six-year-old who is only gradually developing powers of sustained attention and needs relief from tension through physical activity at frequent intervals.

Learning through experiences not only builds readiness for meaningful learning of the three R's but insures readiness for many non-academic learnings such as sharing, taking turns, getting along with others in a group, working cooperatively, becoming more tolerant. The children grow in ability to think ahead, to plan work, to make and keep to a schedule, to become self-reliant, to develop a sense of responsibility, and to work more independently.

Learning through experiences makes for democratic living together. Instead of the teacher dictating every move the children make, they themselves plan their activities with the teacher's aid, make choices and decisions, learn to work together toward a common purpose. Here lie the possibilities

for social adjustment and character building which provide a secure foundation for a happy, useful life.

The children learn almost unconsciously the importance of being orderly and caring for property. Training in health habits begins with natural situations that arise in daily life at school: keeping clean, resting well, avoiding contagion, developing strong bodies, observing safety rules, eating the right foods for glowing health.

The experience program gives the teacher a golden opportunity for observing each child's adjustments with professional eyes; to size up each one's strengths and limitations, his interests, talents, his problems and difficulties. Through these close-up observations, the teacher begins to build a diagnostic picture of each child which will prove to be indispensable in planning the next steps in his training and will afford a basis for objective parent conferences.

Teaching through experiences in the first grade does not lend itself well to standardized techniques or rigid promotion standards. Through knowing at close range the many facets of each child's development, the teacher uses all her ingenuity in making the experiences fit the child. At the end of the term the child does not "pass" or "fail" in any standard sense but whatever difficulties he may have are well understood by the teachers.

Beginning with the Children's Ideas

Learning through experiences originates with the child's own world. Freddie comes in breathlessly on a cold spring morning exclaiming, "Our old sheep had twin lambs last night." Every child is interested in the announcement. There are endless questions: Where do they live? What do they eat? What does "twins" mean? Can't they come to school? How many other sheep are there? Where did the baby lambs come from? How big are they? What color are they? Will Freddie's folks keep them or

sell them? Here is enough potential learning to last the whole term.

In another school the teacher might have said, "Keep quiet, Freddie. You're disturbing our lesson. You can tell the children all about it after school." But Freddie's teacher sees in the boy's simple announcement and the ensuing questions the beginning of a live project on farm animals, a wealth of learning more genuine than any to be gained from following a textbook. In fact, this project is too big to be confined within the covers of a single book even if the children could read. The answers to the questions must be gleaned from many sources in various ways.

A first grade class wanted to know whether the turtles in their terrarium would hibernate in summer as well as in winter. One child suggested that they send a letter to her uncle who knew all about such things. The teacher wrote the letter at the children's dictation and soon the answer was forthcoming, together with advice about caring for the turtles in the summertime.

Book work is delayed until books can serve functional purposes.

Arranging for Experience Teaching

What about the schedule? The program for experience teaching is not set down in advance but evolves as the teacher and pupils become well acquainted with each other. To insure continuity in experiences from day to day and to make certain that nothing important is overlooked, a daily schedule with divisions such as the following is worked out. These divisions need not be strictly adhered to if there is any reason to vary the schedule.

Work and play period—"choosing time"
Plans and discussion by the entire group
Outdoor play
Rest
Stories
Lunch
Music

Activity

Get ready to go home

Six-year-olds take trips about the neighborhood; they relate to the group their experiences at home and school; they have rudimentary science experiments; they learn to make things, to enjoy stories, rhythms, dramatization and games.

A foreign visitor who looked in on the first grade one morning when small groups were busy at many things exclaimed in astonishment, "All the arts, all the arts." Another visitor seemed skeptical as she asked, "Do you mean to say these children actually built that barn all by themselves?"

The busy period known as choosing time lays the foundation for individual and small group work in the higher grades. It is during this time that the children learn to select an activity and to work at it alone or in a small group without demanding the teacher's constant attention or without interfering with other children who are busy on different projects.

In the regimented classroom where the teacher plans beforehand everything the children are to do, and gives uniform instructions to be carried out, it is best for the children to sit in straight rows facing the teacher who stands in front of the room, preferably on a platform. But when children work at problem solving through firsthand experiencing then a more flexible arrangement of chairs and work space is required and workshop equipment and play materials will be needed. Nothing elaborate in the way of materials is necessary. If sufficient supplies cannot be purchased, a survey of the community may yield the desired quantity and quality or may locate persons who can make them.

The Experience Curriculum and the Three R's

All the while that beginners are learning through experiences they are storing up

impressions that lead to mastering the three R's. They are developing skill in language expression whenever they converse, relate incidents, ask questions, explain things, make plans as a group, dictate a class letter or carry a message to someone in the building.

The foundation for reading is laid as the children identify their names, the labels that are attached to things, and messages on the bulletin board. They look over the daily program posted on the blackboard to see what they had planned to do next. They see on the blackboard the letter they dictated to the science expert about the turtles.

Since the content for reading, writing, language and spelling all comes from the same central experiences, (i.e., Freddie's new lambs), all these learnings reinforce each other, economize learning time, and prevent any need for practice of these skills on isolated content. Instead of spelling a standard first grade list of words they spell the words their writing experiences call for. Similarly with reading, hand-writing, language, and arithmetic.

This indirect and casual approach to the skills is all that is needed during the first months of school to insure rapid progress later. In fact, with this foundation, teachers find that children show so much interest in forging ahead and are so well ready to continue learning that formal drill can be eliminated. In its place there are brief diagnostic drill periods for small groups in the class who need extra practice.

The skill that contributes most to reading is language. In the experience program, language and reading go together. Reading back the simple charts the children have dictated in their own language is more like conversation than having a formal reading lesson. The process is simplicity itself if reading the charts has been preceded by storytelling and conversation about daily events.

Without manuscript writing, first used by the teacher then learned by the children, it is difficult to see how the experience curriculum in the first grade could ever be successful. In a sense, manuscript writing has made experience teaching possible. The text used in learning the skills is not derived from a textbook that bears little relation to children's concerns, but from the teacher's manuscript-written labels, charts, and bulletin board messages. The ease with which the children learn manuscript-style writing makes it possible for them to make brief reading material of their own a little later and to list the spelling words they need to use.

The children enjoy reading charts relating their own experiences which they have illustrated with drawings or "cut outs." They delight in rereading "Our Own Stories" which they have copied down on pages to be mounted in a booklet or in the class newspaper. More of this experience will come in the second than the first grade, but the beginnings for these activities come within the first months of school.

For a considerable period of time it is true most of the children will be in a state of "half-learning." The store of isolated words they can recognize correctly at a glance is still small. But with continued practice in meaningful reading based on activities, the finer distinctions will eventually be made and accurate memorization will follow.

There appear to be several advantages in delaying for a time placing in the hands of each child identical copies of the same small book for a group reading lesson. Charts with two-inch high letters or printed enlargements of preprimers save focusing the eyes at close range, locating small page numbers, or a certain line on a small page of print. When all the children look up toward the teacher who is pointing to a chart, the teacher can make certain

(Continued on page 138)

New Tools for Learning

This manuscript was prepared through the cooperation of seven students in a workshop at Teachers College, Columbia University, during the 1944 summer session, under the direction of Miss Miel, associate in curriculum and teaching. The seven students were Lorraine W. Benner, Wheelock College, Boston; Mary Elizabeth Eggleston, public schools, Winston-Salem, North Carolina; Emma Gann, public schools, Springfield, Missouri; Chappie Goode, public school, Rocky Mount, Virginia; Vescey Jencks, music teacher, Des Moines, Iowa; Mildred Peters, public schools, Norfolk, Virginia, and Vivienne Worley, public schools, Denver, Colo.

THE PAUCITY of the hornbook period in the midst of an abundance of avenues for learning—that is the contrast presented by too many schools today. One of the first responsibilities of those who would improve the opportunities of all children to learn is to increase in variety and amount and quality the tools for learning provided in the school environment. Every classroom should contain an array of materials, each issuing its own invitation to the child.

One kind of invitation is issued by printed materials. In the well-equipped classroom, textbooks, sets of readers and standard reference works are supplemented by story books, pamphlets and booklets serving different purposes. The range and amount of reading material may be increased in several ways: (1) by buying single copies of a number of the attractive new readers, science books and social studies books now on the market; (2) by selecting appropriate fiction and non-fiction

books designed for children; (3) by subscribing to children's magazines such as *Wee Wisdom*, *Jack and Jill*, *Child Life*, *Story Parade* and *American Junior Red Cross News* and to a children's newspaper such as *My Weekly Reader*, and (4) by making into attractive booklets single stories from less damaged sections of readers about to be discarded.¹

Sources for Free and Inexpensive Materials

Additional reading material as well as useful maps and pictures can be obtained free or at low cost from many commercial concerns. For example, excellent information, posters and photographs come from the various airlines. Kits of materials, one for primary and one for intermediate grades, can be secured from United Air Lines.² From the same source comes a leaflet, *Free and Inexpensive Educational Materials*, listing what is available from seventeen air lines.

To introduce children to contributions of the railroads there is a set of fifty-six 9" x 12" pictures and an accompanying pamphlet, *The Stories Behind the Pictures—For Primary and Elementary Grades*.³

There is a wealth of good information obtainable from a variety of sources in the field of health and nutrition. *About Us and Our Friends* is an attractive picture book for young children, having an appro-

¹ *Wee Wisdom*, Univ. Publishing Co., 917 Tracy Ave., Kansas City, Mo.; *Jack and Jill*, Curtis Publishing Co., Philadelphia 5, Pa.; *Child Life*, 729 Boylston St., Boston 16, Mass.; *Story Parade*, 70 Fifth Ave., New York 11, N. Y.; *American Junior Red Cross News*, Washington, D. C.

² United Air Lines, School and College Service, 80 E. 42d St., New York 17, N. Y. Each kit is twenty-five cents.

³ Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building, Washington 6, D. C. Free.

priate text for those who read.⁴ For helping children become aware of the relationship of sound health and an adequate diet, *Know Your Foods* will prove valuable.⁴ A kitchen wall chart that can be easily enlisted for school duty is called "Pack a Lunch That Packs a Punch."⁵ Nutrition posters and booklets on milk, menus and foods and other subjects may be obtained from the National Dairy Council.⁶

A good source of information regarding free and inexpensive educational materials is *Educator's Index*, a steel card file whose contents are revised annually.⁷ From this index it can be ascertained that the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs in Washington, D. C., has for distribution free pamphlets on different Latin American countries; that the National Dairy Council has posters and booklets ready to send to schools free on request, and that various travel bureaus, state agencies and commercial firms have maps, posters and other travel material available.

Pictures—Still, Projected and Motion

The still picture offers a second type of invitation to learning. To evaluate still pictures for instructional use, Lelia Trolinger suggests a rating scale containing some such questions as the following:

- Are significant objects in sharp focus?
- Are the size and finish appropriate for use in groups?
- Is the color truthful?
- Does the picture represent a true and typical situation?
- Does the picture provoke thought?
- Does the picture include some known object by which an intelligent comparison of size is possible?⁸

⁴ Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Welfare Division, 1 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. Free.

⁵ General Electric Food Company, 1285 Boston Ave., Bridgeport, Conn. Free.

⁶ National Dairy Council, 111 North Canal St., Chicago 6, Ill. Catalogue of health education materials is free.

⁷ Obtain from Educator's Progress Service, Randolph, Wis. Service costs about fifteen dollars per year.

⁸ "Evaluation of Still Pictures for Instructional Use." By Lelia Trolinger. *Educational Screen*, March-May 1939, 18:81.

Pictures that meet these qualifications extremely well are folios of photographs, with text, depicting family life in China, India and the Soviet Union, published by The East and West Association.⁹ The National Geographic Society is another good source for picture material.¹⁰ Colored pictures like those published in *National Geographic Magazine* may be bought in packets of forty-eight and ninety-six at thirty and fifty cents a packet. Certain back numbers of the magazine are available in packets of ten at one dollar a packet.

The Informative Classroom Picture Series — "documentary" drawings lithographed on Bristol stock—may be secured on such subjects as *Man on Record—Communication, Americans All, and Voyage and Discovery*.¹¹ A new series, *Life in Other Lands*, is now in preparation with folios on Brazil, Mexico and Australia ready for immediate delivery.

A request to *Parents' Magazine*, with a stamped, self-addressed envelope enclosed, will bring a mimeographed list, *Pictures for Children*, which gives sizes, prices, artists and sources.¹²

Photographs of snowflakes and cloud forms may be obtained from the United States Weather Bureau.¹³

Learning Through Projected Pictures

Projected pictures bring information to children in still another guise. Each type of projector has its advantages and its disadvantages. With the opaque projector a picture, drawing, map, graph, or printed piece may be thrown on the screen for group study.¹⁴ The projector is easily op-

⁹ The East and West Association, 40 E. 49th St., New York 17, N. Y. Each folio is fifty cents.

¹⁰ The National Geographic Society, 16th and M Sts., Washington 6, D. C.

¹¹ Informative Classroom Picture Publishers, 1209 Kalamazoo Ave., S. E., Grand Rapids 7, Mich.

¹² *Parents' Magazine*, 42 Vanderbilt Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

¹³ U. S. Weather Bureau, Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D. C. Ten cents each.

¹⁴ Spencer Lens Company, Buffalo, N. Y., or Trans-Lux Daylight Picture Company, 247 Park Ave., New York, N. Y.

erated but results are unsatisfactory unless the room is completely darkened.

Both the slide projector and the film strip projector are easy to operate and slides and film strips are relatively inexpensive. They are especially valuable for use with younger children in presenting subjects where it is not necessary to show motion. Exposure of each view can be as long as desired. The slide and film strip fields are well supplied with material.¹⁵ It is expected that after the war a combination slide-film strip-opaque projector will be on the market. This would seem like the ideal purchase for an elementary school.

The motion picture has the unique advantage of portraying continuity of action. Motion pictures may be used successfully even with young children if exposures are long and if continuity is deliberately slow. *Gray Squirrel* and other primary films produced by Erpi are most satisfactory in these respects.¹⁶

If at all possible, sound projectors should be purchased by schools.¹⁷ Although these projectors are more costly and more likely to suffer breakage than silent ones, most films now produced are sound films. Silent films can be shown with a sound projector but sound films cannot be shown with a silent projector. If desired, the sound can be turned off during a showing to allow the teacher to make comment.

Selected Educational Motion Pictures, published by the American Council on Education, is helpful in selecting films produced prior to January 1941.¹⁸ The New York University Film Library is unusually complete.¹⁹ Each school will want to pos-

sess a catalogue of films and other aids from its own state university film library.

One of the most graphic and amusing sources of suggestions for proper showing of films is a cleverly illustrated Navy training aids manual, *More Learning in Less Time*.²⁰

Learning From the Museum

In communities fortunate enough to have one or more museums there is merely the problem of the best utilization of its resources. Careful preparation of the museum guide as well as of the children is important. At all times it is wise to guard against the method of wholesale exposure.

Since the war many museums are sending collections into the schools. The Valentine Museum of Richmond, Virginia, offers an excellent example of this type of service.²¹ Teachers interested in a similar arrangement should get in touch with their nearest city or state museum.

Some city school systems prepare exhibits and check them out to individual schools. Often found in such collections are stamps, coins, pottery, textiles, flags, birds and rocks.

Another type of collection that is becoming more and more popular is that assembled within the school. Such a collection may grow into a permanent school museum with the children helping to collect, arrange and label the materials.

Maps and Globes

Maps and globes should be part of the environment of every school child from kindergarten on. If budgets are limited, physical-political maps are a good buy. For world maps, both elliptical and polar projections should be available. There

¹⁵ For slides and film strips: Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa.; Society for Visual Education, 100 E. Ohio St., Chicago, Ill.; Stillfilm, Inc., 8443 Melrose Ave., Hollywood 46, Calif.

¹⁶ Erpi Films, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

¹⁷ For sound and silent movie projectors: Bell and Howell Company, 1801 Larchmont Ave., Chicago, Ill.; Ampro Corporation, 2839 North Western Ave., Chicago, Ill.; Victor Animatograph Company, Davenport, Iowa.

¹⁸ American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

¹⁹ New York University Film Library, 71 Washington Square South, New York 12, N. Y.

²⁰ Bureau of Naval Personnel, U. S. Navy Department, Washington 25, D. C.

²¹ "Valentine Museum Goes to School." *Virginia Journal of Education*, November 1943, 31:103.

should be on hand, also, good maps of the United States, region and state.²²

There are two maps that make an outstanding contribution to an understanding of other peoples and their part in the making of our country. *A Nation of One People From Many Countries* may be secured from the Council Against Intolerance in America.²³ *Makers of the U.S.A.*, a map in four colors, 34½" by 22½", is published by Friendship Press.²⁴

An interesting and practical means of displaying non-durable maps is to place them on a table under heavy glass.

Learning Through Games

A modern schoolroom should provide play centers for children as well as work centers. The games should vary in kind from those requiring action to the ones that invite quiet and thought. Standards of evaluation may be applied to games just as to any other phase of curriculum: Will the use of these games aid the child in his physical or mental development? Will they aid in his emotional or social development? Will they provide relaxation from more strenuous tasks and yet be suitable for use in the schoolroom?

Picture puzzles help children in matching and in recognizing similarity in size and shape.²⁵ Map puzzles aid in acquainting them with geographical locations. Wooden trays the size of the puzzle are a great convenience for preserving unfinished work.²⁶ There are reading and spelling puzzles suitable for children just learning

these skills. The puzzles consist of pictures of familiar objects with a jigsaw cutout underneath into which the corresponding word or letter is to be fitted.²⁷ Games of categories, scrambles, and anagrams are valuable in middle and upper grades.²⁸

There are many forms of lotto for acquainting children with various areas—A.B.C.'s, flowers, good things to eat, things that go, birds, animals, and object lotto.²⁹

For those just beginning to learn numbers, the clock puzzle and a simple number puzzle for matching numbers with dots are good.²⁸ For more advanced number games where the use of numbers for score-keeping is involved, there are ringtoss, shuffleboard, tenpins, beanbags, bingo, lotto, parchesi, chess, checkers, dominoes and flinch. Valuable social development may come from these games also.

Other games entertaining to children and valuable from a learning standpoint are those that involve buying and selling and making change. *We Play Store* and *Let's Go Shopping* are good examples.²⁸ ²⁹ Then there are those based on the use of a map for a playing board—*Let's Auto Tour* and *U. S. Air Mail Game*.²⁸ These games facilitate learning in number and geography.

Learning By Radio

As in the case of other new tools for learning, the school has been rather deliberate in making use of the radio. There seem to be two angles to the problem: one is the guidance of home listening; the other the utilization of school-time broadcasts.

If teachers are to help with the guidance of home listening they must first learn what programs their children are hearing. They must listen to these programs and to others the children might profit from. When teachers learn of a new and prom-

²² Maps may be obtained from A. J. Nystrom and Company, 3333 Elston Ave., Chicago, Ill.; Denoyer, Geppert Company, 5255-57 Ravenwood Ave., Chicago, Ill.; Rand McNally and Company, 536 S. Clark St., Chicago, Ill.

²³ Council Against Intolerance in America, Lincoln Building, New York 17, N. Y. Free.

²⁴ Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y. Price, twenty-five cents.

²⁵ Picture puzzles are available from Educational Playthings, Inc., 20 E. 69th St., New York, N. Y.; Samuel Gabriel Sons, 200 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.; The Judy Company, 107 Third Ave., N., Minneapolis 1, Minn.

²⁶ Map puzzles are available from J. L. Hammett Company, Kendall Square, Cambridge, Mass.; Milton Bradley Company, Springfield 2, Mass.; Educational Playthings, Inc. (puzzles and trays).

²⁷ Gabriel Sons; Educational Playthings, Inc.; Child Welfare Publishers, Evanston, Ill.

²⁸ Educational Playthings, Inc.

²⁹ Gabriel Sons.

ising program offered by one of the networks they can, with the help of the parents, encourage its use by the local station. The school has the further responsibility of helping to build a listening audience for worthwhile programs. At present the Blue Network is doing some creative work with children's programs.³⁰

Gloria Chandler of the Association of Junior Leagues of America, Inc., and A.C.E. Consultant on Radio, suggests three possible uses of radio in the schools:

Radio can furnish background material to open up new interests.

Radio itself can provide workshop activity for children.

Radio can be used to interpret the schools to the public.

All of these uses can provide opportunities for children's learning. The first use is of special importance in areas where children have few opportunities to learn from such avenues as the theater, the museum, the symphony orchestra, and from adult specialists along various lines.

A list of the kinds of children's programs of greatest educational worth probably should include the following items at least:

Literature programs. Children usually show a decided preference for familiar stories. These stories should be counter-balanced with a suitable proportion of unfamiliar material. With younger children dramatization rather than straight storytelling appears to have more appeal.

History programs. There seems to be an increasing demand for local and regional history in educational broadcasts. An advantage of this type of program is that adults can share the children's interest.

Music programs. With the exception of a few well-organized musical programs for children, this is as yet an undeveloped area. The Wisconsin School of the Air has been successful in teaching music by radio be-

cause at all times participation by the listeners is provided for.

Nature programs. Some excellent materials are being broadcast in this area. An interesting departure at Denver has been a broadcast of a real nature hike in which a group of children is conducted by a forest ranger.

Newscasts for children. Experimentation in this area is just beginning. In Winnipeg it has been found that special broadcasts on the background of the news keep reaching an ever younger audience. Special music inserted in the middle of a fifteen-minute broadcast seems to be especially important for holding the attention of young listeners. Experience at Charleston, South Carolina, indicates that news comments for children should be in slower tempo and grouped about selected subjects.

Invitations to use community resources. Radio can render a splendid service by inviting children to use other resources in the community—art exhibits, museum exhibits, musical offerings, theater, library, flower shows, and recreational facilities. Grand Rapids, Michigan, has had signal success along this line.

Records and Transcriptions as Aids to Learning

Phonograph records and transcriptions of radio broadcasts are more costly but more flexible tools for learning than is the radio itself. One of the major problems in the selection and use of records has been the lack of valid appraisals of the many recordings on the market. Through the American Council on Education, a listing and appraisal of hundreds of records has been made available.³¹

Music records, vocal and instrumental, have possibly had a wider usage than other types for school purposes. For the younger

³⁰ A mimeographed bi-monthly listing, *Women's and Children's Programs*, may be secured free from the Blue Network, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y.

³¹ Obtainable from New Tools for Learning, New York University, Washington Square, New York City. *Recordings for School Use*, a catalogue of appraisals by J. Robert Miles, was published by World Book Company in 1942.

pupils there are the rhymes and poems accompanied by simple music. Children enjoy instrumental music especially if, while listening, they are allowed freedom of movement by way of rhythmic expression. When given opportunities to listen to the best music, children develop a fine sense of appreciation.

With the present emphasis in schools on the understanding of people of other cultures, recordings without doubt will play an important part as a tool for learning, enabling children to gain an appreciation of the music of various races and nationalities as well as giving them an opportunity to become familiar with the dances of foreign languages.

Other Tools for Learning

Some of the best tools for learning cannot be included in the category of audio-visual aids with which this article has largely been concerned. These tools are such raw materials as magnets, prisms, magnifying glasses, compasses, dry cells, blueprint paper, and other items that invite science experiments; a costume and property box that suggests dramatic play; rhythm instruments that lead to experimentation with sound; pets that offer opportunities to study dietary laws and other biological principles; a sewing machine and other equipment for fashioning articles out of cloth; cookie cutters, recipe books and other paraphernalia that enable children to learn about the basic household art of cooking; and typewriters that take

the drudgery out of writing and thus free children for fuller written expression. The materials and tools for expression in the graphic and plastic arts should also be remembered when listing possible tools for learning.

Since it would be difficult and even undesirable to provide within the limits of one classroom all the tools for learning mentioned in this article, two courses of action seem indicated. One is not to have all the "wares" out at one time. Whatever is designed for children's use during a given period of a week or month or more should be arranged in such a way as to be readily accessible to the children. In that way they will have opportunities to learn to make choices of activity, and to use, care for, and conserve materials. But choices available at any one time should be geared to the powers of discrimination of the children. Besides, some things should be kept in reserve to whet appetites for learning at appropriate times. Thus, books in the reading corner should be changed periodically and a new art medium should be introduced or reintroduced now and then.

A second course of action is to plan the use of the school building as a whole so that centers for various kinds of activities are available to different individuals and groups as they wish to use them. This may mean a total change in the traditional organization of the school, but such a change may prove to be most desirable from the standpoint of optimum use of the many tools for learning that are at hand.

THE JOB of trying to make some sense of this world of ours, day after day, is not an easy one. He (the citizen) must mediate between the present moment and the long view. He must decide whether what seems catastrophic today will not be worn down by the buoyancy of the human spirit, and what seems most hopeful may not be sunk in the old Adam. He must feel deeply if he is to be part of the action and passion of his time, yet he must not be swept out on his own emotional currents into a chartless sea. He must know his own ignorance and refrain from playing God. Yet he must have the basic assurance that men can in the end ride their world instead of being ridden by it.—By MAX LERNER from an editorial, "The Human Condition," in *PM*.

The Meaning of Growth

WHEN WILLARD OLSON sent us one of the cuts used in his article in the October issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, a reprint titled, "The Meaning of Growth," accompanied it. The first paragraph contained a favorite story of ours, followed by a definition of growth by Mr. Olson which we think you will appreciate.

"The census taker encountered an unschooled mother and asked for the ages of her five children. She declared she couldn't remember. On further urging, she said, 'Well, there's one lap child, one creeper, one porch child, one yard child, and one school child.'

"*Growth* is an inclusive word used to describe the differences that exist between a lap child and a creeper, a creeper and a porch child, a porch child and a yard child, and between a yard child and a school child, and the process by which these changes occur. While one may study a single aspect of the changes that occur in growing, the application of knowledge requires a clear recognition of the interdependence of all aspects."

The reprint of nine pages was made from *Child Growth in an Era of Conflict*, the fifteenth yearbook of the Michigan Education Association Department of Elementary School Principals. If you missed the article, "Concepts of Growth—Their Significance to Teachers," by Mr. Olson and Mr. Hughes in the October issue, you will find it well worth reading.

Work for Youth DOROTHY WAUGH, director of public relations at the Monclair, New Jersey, public library, has sent us a brief statement of how young adolescents have helped the library during this period of labor shortage. Miss Waugh says:

"Here at the library our pages, before the war, were men. Since Pearl Harbor we have had in their places a series of high school boys who one after another as their eighteenth birthdays arrived went off to camp and were replaced by other boys of the same age. Our current replacements are high school girls.

"In addition to carrying their regular school work these young juveniles have taken on numerous jobs at the library. Boys and girls have learned to run the projector and to show such films as 'The Birth of a Baby' and 'Home Nursing' for the Red Cross, 'Desert Victory' and 'Target for Tonight' for families and

Across the

friends of those in the services, and 'More Eggs From Your Hens' and 'Sowing and Planting' for victory gardeners. These boys and girls have carried through their assignments without an accident, with hardly a delay, and with a most courteous and responsible cooperation.

"A group of young colored girls has addressed mailings to servicemen's families and a group of junior high school girls has been trained to tell stories to the young children of working mothers.

"It is true that there has been some breaking of chairs and some rowdiness when boys of the boisterous age found themselves in possession of free space, without an adult present. One small group of girl helpers became discourteous and aggressive when put on their own too completely and too soon. But these difficulties were far outweighed by the real contributions these young people made to the library and to their community."

"Childhood Education" and the WAVES

WE HAVE HAD many comments on last year's issues of

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION and many orders for the bulletin reprinted from them, *Discipline—An Interpretation*. But one order for the bulletin interested us particularly. Here is what the letter of order said: "My sister is responsible for the discipline and well-being of fifty WAVES in C. She says the bulletin is just what she needs in her work. I have loaned her the magazines for 1943-44—all the numbers of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION that discuss discipline. She says they are wonderful."

If the kind of discipline we believe in works equally well with both children and adults, is this one way to test its rightness?

Summer Experiences RECENTLY, A NUMBER of letters from teacher friends have contained brief accounts of summer experiences which show a variety great enough to satisfy even the most ardent believer in "real living for teachers." One person writes briefly, "I have had a very fine experience this

the Editor's Desk

summer. I directed a woman's farm army camp in the cherry district. This week I am leaving to attend the New York Institute of Photography." Another served as timekeeper and personnel adviser for a well-known soup-making company. A third had a very hush-hush job with a government agency which she reports as "the most thrilling thing that ever happened to me." A fourth one worked as a clerk for a government department, and a fifth worked in an airplane factory. All five of these people are returning to school teaching this fall and "glad to get back to it, too."

Post-war Planning SOME TIME AGO a request for help read like this: "We in D. are doing what most other educationally minded people are doing—we are looking ahead to a post-war world and are talking and thinking about plans for new school buildings, if and when the opportunity arises. It seems to us well to have some convictions ahead of time so that when we can move forward again we will be ready to do so. Therefore I need some material which I can use to back up my beliefs, or which will help me to clarify my ideas and to determine whether they are right or wrong. Could you refer me to some material which would be of help in deciding what should go into an elementary school building? I have access to *Architectural Record* and the *American School Board Journal*. Any other suggestions will be greatly appreciated."

School buildings like many other buildings have not had the necessary care during the past three or four years and begin now to show the evidences of their neglect. In some cases new buildings will be built; in others the same old ones must be renovated for many more years of use. We were glad to answer the request above by sending copies of two A.C.E. bulletins, *School Housing Needs of Young Children* and *Four- and Five-Year-Olds at School*. A reprint on equipment and supplies and a leaflet on the general physical setup of a kindergarten were also included and an Office of Education publication was suggested, *Functional Planning of Elementary School Buildings*.

Erratum ON PAGE 36 of the September issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, the name of Esther Starks was omitted from the committee which is working with Margaret Hampel to review bulletins and pamphlets. We are sorry that Miss Stark's name was omitted and hereby offer our apologies.

Among the Magazines THE FIRST thirty-six pages of the *Peabody Journal of Education*, July 1944 issue are devoted to statements from young teachers—those who have never taught except as cadets and those who have taught for one year only. These statements make interesting reading. Enthusiasm is there, an almost painful sincerity, determination and the will to succeed as a teacher. Many more references are made to the importance of the children than to the importance of subject matter to be learned. Much more concern is expressed over helping the individual child to grow than fear that the course of study may not be covered. Discipline, too, these young teachers feel that they can take in their stride. Why? Because most of them say that a sense of humor is indispensable in a teacher and besides, "If I can meet the individual needs of my pupils their discipline will take care of itself."

A young teacher from Eastern State Normal, Madison, South Dakota, has set three important objectives for her first and second graders this year: . . . "to have a happy life, to get along with others, to get along with themselves . . . I want to help my first and second graders to develop self-confidence . . . to stand up for year: ". . . to have a happy life, to get along develop consideration of others. It seems to me that consideration of others is more important than it has ever been before . . . If we want to prevent wars in the future we will have to see that those who are children now grow up with an attitude of respect for the rights and customs of others, even though those rights and customs seem strange to us."

The enthusiasm, sincerity, determination of these young teachers is one of our priceless heritages for America's children. Let us more experienced teachers resolve to fight battles and wage wars if necessary to make sure that these virtues are not crushed out of these young teachers.

A Scholar, A Family and Children's Books

In honor of children's book week "Childhood Education" presents these reviews of two books for parents and teachers which give a new perspective on children and "the literature they have made their own." Mrs. Arbuthnot, associate professor of education at Western Reserve University, Cleveland, was formerly children's book review editor for "Childhood Education."

FOR ALL WHO LOVE CHILDREN'S BOOKS 1944 will long remain a banner year. It has brought us two books about children and the literature they have made their own. These books, written with wisdom and freshness, are *Books, Children and Men*¹ by Paul Hazard and "Bequest of Wings," *A Family's Pleasures With Books*² by Annis Duff.

Paul Hazard is a member of the French Academy. He held the chair of Modern Literature in the Collège de France, received honorary degrees from Harvard and Columbia, and since 1932 has taught in the latter University every other year. In 1941 he returned to France from a deep sense of duty to his unhappy country and despite the pleas of his American friends to remain safely on this side of the water. The Nazi's disapproved of him and in April of this year announced his death.

Still we say Paul Hazard is. We say it hoping the report may prove false and we should still say it were the rumor true; for in this book a scholar, a genuinely civilized soul, speaks to us as vividly and blithely as if the man were speaking in person.

You will first read and reread *Books, Children and Men* for sheer enjoyment. Then you will wish to study it for here is the history of children's books all over the world, written by a master of comparative literature, reviewing for us the international and the national qualities of this offering. Again you will find yourself enjoying this book for the sheer magic of its style, for the rich philosophy of life that per-

vades every page and finally for the insight it gives into the growing minds and spirits of children. It is a book to be owned and cherished permanently. The distinguished format that The Horn Book has given it enhances its beauty.

To review the contents of Paul Hazard's book is to be sorely tempted to quote and quote again. Where else can you find such a satisfying invective against the flood of dull books that has swept down upon children through the years?

They offered him books that oozed boredom, that were likely to make him detest wisdom forever; silly books that paralyzed the spontaneous forces of his soul; absurd books by tens and by hundreds, falling like hail in springtime.

Who else has given us so shrewd an analysis of children's ability to evade what they do not like?

Children defend themselves, I tell you. They manifest at first a degree of inertia that resists the liveliest attacks; finally they take the offensive and expel their false friends from a domain in which they wish to remain rulers. Nothing is done to create a common opinion among them and yet that opinion exists. They would be totally incapable of defining the faults that displease them; but they cannot be made to believe that a book which displeases them *should* please them.

Where can you find as sound and penetrating glimpses of those qualities children value in books? First, "the very essence of art"—clear language, simplicity, logical sequence of ideas, integrity. Second, men, animals and all nature sharing a universal vitality. Finally, a profound morality; not moralizing, but justice always, and the embodiment of the great truth that "real evil is the sin against the spirit, the lack of kindness and humanity."

In conclusion, no student of children's literature can afford to miss Paul Hazard's witty and understanding commentaries on Robinson Crusoe, Gulliver's Travels, Don Quixote, Alice in Wonderland, the tales of Perrault and the Grimm brothers, and his matchless appreciation of Pinocchio and the stories of Hans Christian Andersen. Perhaps his emphasis on the "inner life" of the Andersen tales, their se-

¹ Translated by Marguerite Mitchell. Boston: The Horn Book, Inc., 1944. Pp. 176. \$3.

² New York: Viking Press, 1944. Pp. 204. \$2.

renity, "their gift of faith and hope" may bring more of them back into our elementary schools from which they have been too long absent.

"Bequest of Wings"

From the library of the scholar it is pleasant to be permitted to look in on the family life of the Duffs whose love of the arts is second only to their love for each other. They are four: the father; the mother and ex-librarian; Deirdre the girl-child, verbal and bookish from the start; Steven, the boy-child, at first mildly resistant to books and ever a most passionate devotee of trains and wheels. The background for their literary adventures is a library of some two thousand books, scholarly adults who know these books and many more and, finally, a growing collection of fine recorded music and prints.

With this equipment Mrs. Duff begins exposing her children from babyhood to good books of many kinds, music and pictures in happy association and the habit of turning to authorities to verify facts or to run down clues to more exact information. It is a heartening picture of aesthetic and intellectual satisfactions that range from the everyday use of encyclopedias to the sharing of nonsense verse, great poetry and the moving beauty of fine music and pictures. "We do it for fun," says Mrs. Duff. "Anything else is a by-product." But oh what priceless by-products in joys shared and human relations deepened!

There are two chapters on the use of nursery rhymes and poetry that are the most convincing demonstrations I have yet encountered of what a poetry-saturated adult can do to give children an enjoyment of and a life-long taste for fine verse. These chapters should not be missed by anyone who lives with children and loves poetry. Incidentally, lest Mrs. Duff's virtuosity in producing the right poem at the right time without benefit of the printed page dis-

courage you, just remember that poems are easily learned on a street car; they can be re-said on a walk or chanted in the bath tub. And the first thing you know—they are yours forever and they multiply with astonishing ease.

Mrs. Duff gives us the librarian's practical and none-too-well-known techniques of handling books, chapters on masculine book needs, funny books, learning to look at pictures, fun with words, fairy tales, fine science books and many other related discussions all rife with suggestions for further experiments by like-minded adults anywhere.

But there are three special chapters besides those on poetry which I wish every teacher might read and reread. They are "Learning to Look," "Music My Ramparts," and "Letter to Grandfather." In the first of these chapters Mrs. Duff describes her use of the modern, superbly illustrated books for children together with reproductions of masterpieces to feed and increase the child's natural delight in looking long and deeply. Sometimes she further enriches this experience by using with it certain great music. She names typical pictures and music that may be so combined. In the chapter on music she describes her use of fine recordings for their own beauty and sometimes in relation to literature.

Finally, in the "Letter to Grandfather" she let's you see the fruition of these enjoyments in the family celebration of Christmas. Reading it, we kept wishing that Christmas and other festivals might come to our schoolrooms in just such ways—illuminated, made warm and dear by happy people who are fond of each other and share the enjoyment of great literature, music and pictures.

We closed Mrs. Duff's book with a lump in our throats and a fervent hope that her glad evangel of giving children the best we know and feel may reach great numbers of teachers and through them enrich the minds and spirits of children everywhere.

SINCE ALL LEARNING is goal-seeking, it seems evident that each child is capable of learning anything which he can relate to the attainment of a personal goal.

The child in first grade who has a need for reading learns this activity rapidly. The child who has no such need may be forced to go through the motions of reading but achieves no real learning. If the second child can have the reading experience postponed until a personal goal develops, he will learn how to read quickly and effectively.—From *Interaction: The Democratic Process*. By L. Thomas Hopkins.

Books FOR CHILDREN...

LUTIE. By Margot Austin. Illustrated by the author. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1944. Unpaged. \$1.

Perhaps we could call this "escape literature" for the younger readers. In any event it's hilarious reading! Lutie, a little mountain boy, didn't feel like leaving his mountain and going off to get book learning. After kicking up quite a tantrum over the prospect, he changes his mind and decides to let nothing stand in his way and starts off to school accompanied by his animal friends, cat Meat, dog Gone, and horse Hyde. They meet with storm and flood, and high water carries them all back to the home orchard along with enough relics from the flood to set up a schoolhouse right there, complete with schoolmaster. The book's format suggests that it was designed for young children but the older children, too, relish the humor!

DOG DAYS. By Katherine Southwick Keeler. Illustrated by the author. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1944. Unpaged. \$1.25.

Illustrations and text charmingly depict the life of a family during a summer in the country. There is a real family feeling about the story of the Tucker children who had everything they wanted in the country—except a dog. The reader rejoices with the little Tuckers when through a series of fortunate accidents they acquire not *one* dog but *three*! For five- to eight-year-olds.

YOUNG HEROES OF THE WAR. By Joseph Gollomb and Alice Taylor. Illustrations by Nedda Walker. New York: The Vanguard Press, 1944. Pp. 239. \$2.50.

Adults all over the world have been impressed by the contributions made by children in the war-torn countries. Here is a book which tells the story of young heroes six to seventeen years of age in China, Russia, Yugoslavia, Britain, Belgium and other United Nations. It is written with appreciation and a matter-of-fact approach which shows heroism to be a natural response of children. There

is the story of Kolka, a Russian boy, who was left behind when the Germans came. Through his strategy in entertaining them with imitations of bird calls, the Germans are wiped out. Other stories show equal heroism.

THIRTY-ONE ROADS TO THE WHITE HOUSE. By Alberta Powell Graham. Illustrated by George Avison. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1944. Pp. 239. \$2.75.

SILVER FOR GENERAL WASHINGTON. By Enid LaMonte Meadowcroft. Illustrated by Sandra James. New York: The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1944. Pp. 138. \$2.

TAD LINCOLN, THE PRESIDENT'S SON. By T. Morris Longworth. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1944. Pp. 263. \$2.50.

This year of the presidential election seems to be rich in children's books about our presidents. Here are three of merit and interest.

The *Thirty-One Roads to the White House* lead from poor log cabins, stately mansions, and middle-class homes on Main Street. This is a sincere recording of the childhood doings of each of our presidents. For children from ten to fourteen.

Silver for General Washington, a story of Valley Forge, presents authentic historical material in a readable story with implications in Americanism for today's children. For children in the middle grades.

In *Tad Lincoln* the life and times of President Lincoln are seen through the eyes of his admiring and mischievous son. This is a book which makes Lincoln come alive for the child reader. For children from eight to fourteen.

HUMPTY DUMPTY AND OTHER MOTHER GOOSE SONGS. Illustrated and arranged by H. A. Rey. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943. Unpaged. \$1.

One of the "trick" books for which H. A. Rey is well known. The songs, recorded in picture form, come to life. A gay-spirited little book for the four- to six-year-olds.

Research ABSTRACTS...

THE WISHES OF NEGRO SCHOOL CHILDREN. By Susan Gray. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology*, June 1944, 64:225-237.

Negro children in grades one to six in a large school in Nashville, Tennessee, and in two small towns were asked the following question: "If you could have anything in all the world that you might want, just anything, what would you ask for? Put down just ONE thing—that one thing you would rather have than anything else you can think of?" The responses of 820 children are analyzed and continued with those of a previous study of the wishes of white children made by Boynton.

One striking finding was the grouping of interests in a small number of wishes. Wishes for a bicycle and an automobile accounted for 42 per cent of all responses of boys and for 35 per cent of those of the girls. The six things most commonly wished for were: bicycle, automobile, home, clothing, money, piano. These six things accounted for 73 per cent of the boys' wishes and for 71 per cent of the girls' wishes. The six most popular wishes of the white children were the same except that pony was included, piano omitted.

The wishes of both Negro and white children were almost entirely materialistic in nature, health and education being the only abstract wishes stated at all frequently. The author finds little relationship between wishes expressed and either chronological age or grade placement. Exceptions are interests in a bicycle and education which increases with age, and interests in automobiles and toys which decrease as children grow older. Girls' interests connected with the home are significantly greater than those of boys, while boys' interests in travel and conveyance are greater than those of girls. Girls were more interested in expressing specific wishes for a piano and a watch than were boys. No reliable differences were found between the wishes of children of high and of low economic status.

The chief differences between the wishes of white and Negro children were summarized

as follows: Negro children expressed somewhat more wishes relating to the home, showed a greater interest in musical instruments, especially the piano, and revealed less scattering of interests than white children. White children expressed more wishes for animals, particularly the pony. The author is impressed not with the differences but rather with the similarity of the wishes of the two racial groups. The findings of the study seem to support the hypothesis that the interests of an individual are the result of the particular experiences which he as an individual has had rather than the results of the natural or artificial group to which he may belong.

PHYSIQUE, PERSONALITY AND SCHOLARSHIP; A COOPERATIVE STUDY OF SCHOOL CHILDREN. By R. Nevitt Sanford and others. Washington: National Research Council. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, Vol. VIII, No. 1, Serial No. 34. 1943. Pp. 705.

This abstract is of the section entitled "Interrelations between Diet, Illness and Certain Physical Variables," by Bertha S. Burke and Harold C. Stuart. Abstracts of other sections will appear later.

Various physical measurements were made on 21 boys and 27 girls over a three-year period. The children were selected as normal, representative pupils in a school near Harvard University. At the beginning of the study, 16 were aged five, and four represented each age group from six to fourteen. A total of 90 dietary records was obtained on 40 of the children. Although the economic and educational level of the parents was high, only 2.5 per cent of the diets was rated excellent and 25 per cent good. A rating of fair was given to 40 per cent and of poor to 32.5 per cent. The chief causes of this poor showing were thought to be the children's unsatisfactory food habits and poor meal planning due to the parents' lack of knowledge. Of the 13 children whose diets were rated poor, 62 per cent were feeding problems, refusing such basic foods as milk,

meat and eggs or displaying fussy, dawdling eating habits which resulted in coaxing, bribing or the substitution of one food for another.

The children were classified as tall, average or short and a comparison made with amount of protein in the diet. In no case was the protein intake rated as poor. The only four children classified as short were in the group with "fair" protein intake. Of those with good protein intake, 13 were tall and 13 average. The excellent protein-intake group consisted of four tall and one of average height. Using the same ratings of protein intake, no child in the excellent group was "fat" and no child in the fair group was "thin." In the fair group, six of the nine children were "fat" judged by the weight-height ratio. Grouping together those with excellent or good consumption of protein, 68 per cent was found to be above average in red blood cell count, while only one in nine of the "fair" protein group was above average in this respect.

Each child, on the average, missed 48 days of school because of illness during the three-year period. Minor respiratory infections accounted for 66 per cent of the total separate illnesses and 57 per cent of the absences. Corresponding figures for major respiratory illnesses are 8 per cent and 20 per cent. Upper gastrointestinal disorders caused 8 per cent of the separate illnesses but only 3.4 per cent of the time lost.

Taking the number of major respiratory infections as a measure of illness, the children above and below average in this respect were compared with adequacy of diet in several nutritional essentials. Those with excellent intake of Vitamin C averaged .31 such infections; those with good intake, .58 infections, and those with fair or poor intake, .90 infections each year. Those with excellent or good consumption of milk had .40 major respiratory infections while those with fair or poor intake of milk had .73 such illnesses per annum.

Experiences in First Grade

(Continued from page 125)

whether they are all giving attention to the place indicated and can easily identify those who are not. With charts attention is easier to control. Experience material can more easily be reproduced in large charts and chart work can be related to material written on the blackboard alongside. The children's art work can be used in connection with the charts, and group games can more easily be played with the chart material. Furthermore, one copy of the chart or enlarged book is sufficient for the entire class.

The experience curriculum is a boon to arithmetic foundations for it eliminates premature busy seat work with number symbols. Instead, learning through experiences forces the child to think through real problems, simple as they are, that arise in his daily life. During the first months at school there is plenty of counting to be done. There will be real or play money to handle, things to be measured, sizes and amounts to be estimated, the thermometer to be read, and telling time by the clock. Yet the child may not have put down a single number combination on paper. He is

doing his number work in his head just as most of us must do it in real life. The number symbols are not introduced until children have gained skill in handling their own number problems in concrete situations. Even when the symbols are introduced they are still tied to concrete objects so as to insure meaningful learning instead of memorization without understanding. By the end of the first year in school the children understand number language and can use what they have learned in genuine problem solving. Skill with numbers grows steadily as experience increases and the child's mind matures.

Even with the best teaching the inevitable differences among children in rate of progress will occur. But the experience curriculum takes care of this problem better than "standard" teaching, for each child brings to his school life and assimilates from it what his own growth and capacities require. Both he and the teacher are happy and relaxed. The teacher realizes that every child is making progress in terms of his own developmental goals.

News HERE AND THERE...

Patty Smith Hill Fund

The Association for Childhood Education is happy to announce that for the second year Patty Smith Hill, professor emeritus of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, has presented the sum of \$2500 to be used for projects in the field of early childhood education and welfare. This sum, as well as Miss Hill's earlier gift, is from a fund presented to her in honor of her fortieth anniversary of service in education, by her former students, her colleagues and her friends.

Last year a part of the gift was used for a scholarship award to Esther Johnston, who worked on a project known as "The Manhattanville Nursery School Community Child Service" in a congested district near Columbia University. This year an equal sum, \$1000, was given to the Manhattanville Nursery Association to help carry on the work that Miss Johnston had aided through her year's work.

Another \$1000 was awarded in the form of scholarships of \$500 each to Miranda Mayo and Ophelia Penn, students at Cooperative School for Teachers, New York City. Miss Mayo, of Baltimore, Maryland, is a graduate of Hampton Institute and has taught for six weeks in the Hampton Nursery School. Miss Penn, a native of Beckley, West Virginia, received her degree from Hampton in 1943 and has been working for the past year at Fisk University on a fellowship in nursery education. Both students expect to work in nursery schools after completion of their present study.

The remaining \$500 will be used to cover any possible expense in connection with the awards, and such other projects in the field of early childhood education as Miss Hill and the A.C.E. Executive Board may deem suitable.

The work done at Manhattanville and under the two scholarships will be followed closely by Agnes Snyder of Mills School and Cooperative School for Teachers. Last year Miss Snyder supervised Miss Johnston's work and the research carried on at the University of Chicago by Evelyn Brandon, a second scholarship

recipient. Miss Snyder's report of these finished projects is given in the 1944 A.C.E. Yearbook.

Home Economics Secretary

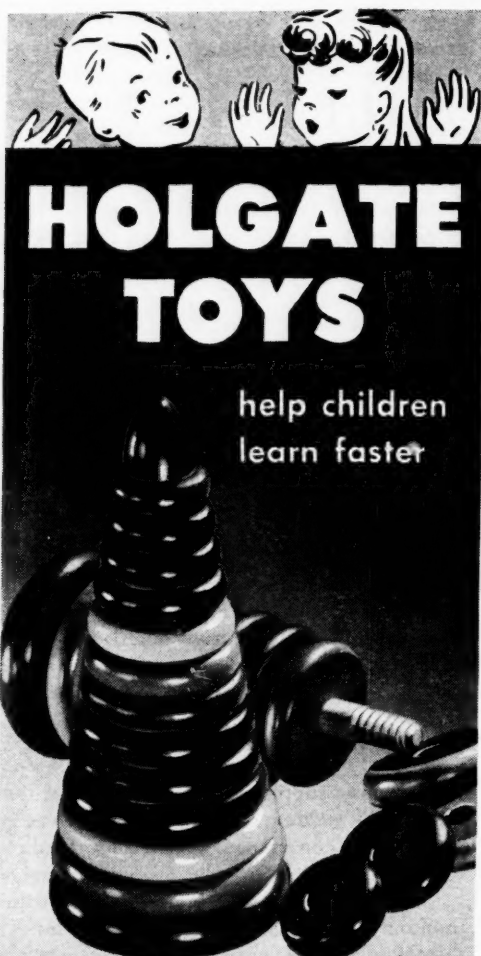
On September 1, Lelia M. Massey assumed the position of executive secretary of the American Home Economics Association, at its headquarters in Washington, D. C. For the past two years Miss Massey had been an assistant supervisor in the Bureau of Home Economics of New York State, and before that time was state supervisor of home economics in Montana. She has held various offices in the American Home Economics Association and served for two years on the executive board as chairman of the department of elementary and secondary schools.

Workshop in Music Curriculum

The music supplement to the *Teaching Guide for the Elementary Schools of Utah* was prepared in a conference and workshop on the teaching of music in the elementary schools, held on the Brigham Young University campus in June 1944. The workshop was under the direction of the elementary division of the State Department of Public Instruction. Elementary supervisors, music supervisors, elementary principals and teachers from all parts of the state participated. The large majority of those contributing was regular classroom teachers.

The workshop was preceded by a two-day music conference held in November 1943. Following this conference the school districts throughout the state gave added emphasis to the problems of the teaching of music. Problems involved in the teaching of music and descriptions of classroom experiences in the field, sent to the state department, were used as a beginning for the study.

The music supplement to the guide will consist of a point of view toward music teaching which gives the place of music in the elementary school program and a discussion of and



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specific helps in the use of music as it applies to the child's development in six areas of activity. These areas are seen not as separate defined fields but rather as overlapping areas that complement each other and yet, for the purpose of understanding, should receive specific emphasis. The areas are: singing, physical response to music or rhythm, listening to music, playing instruments, creating new responses to music and music for special occasions.

Inter-American Education

Twenty-two school districts and teachers colleges in the United States have been designated centers for a new project in inter-American education administered by the U. S. Office of Education and financed with grants-in-aid from the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. This project is one of a series carried out jointly by the two offices since 1941.

Three types of program are included in the project. The first will be carried out in ten inter-American demonstration centers in elementary and secondary schools and teachers' colleges. These centers will send teams of teachers experienced in inter-American educational work to other schools in their areas for planning conferences and consultation. The teams will include representatives from elementary, secondary and teachers-college levels plus teachers who are specialists in art, music, literature, Spanish, English, history, geography and other fields.

A second type of program is being organized in six teachers colleges, each of which will set up an inter-American curriculum workroom. Each workroom will be supervised by a member of the faculty who will help student-teachers select and organize inter-American educational materials for use in their teaching.

The third program will be carried on in six selected communities in the Southwest in which there are large numbers of Spanish-speaking children. Its purpose is to improve the quality of instruction in such schools and to relate their activities more closely to school-community needs. Centers for this program are four colleges in Texas, one in Colorado, and one in California. Cooperation of state, county and local school officials, as well as social-welfare, agricultural and other related community agencies will be sought.

(Continued on page 142)

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In Denmark

Elementary education in Denmark has been compulsory since 1814. Everyone can read and write. From elementary school until graduation from the university, no tuition is paid except in private schools.

Danish schools and teachers under Nazi occupation have carried on despite the loss of school buildings to Nazi barracks, despite undernourished children from homes without soap and hot water, and despite Nazi encroachments, many and varied, gross and subtle, upon both schools and teachers.

Denmark is not only one of the most enlightened countries in the world but also one of the most democratic. It demonstrates the value of spiritual influence in education, which is seen most clearly in the Danish folk schools. These are different from any other schools for adults. They are rural boarding schools where young men come for a five-month winter course and young women for a three-month summer session. They are cultural rather than vocational schools and aim to create a desire for a deeper understanding of life and its duties and civic responsibilities.

In Italy

In January and February of this year, thousands of Italian children were returning to reopened schools in the area around Naples. The Allied Military Government, reports the *New York Post*, is basing its efforts upon its experiences in "decontaminating" the Fascist schools of Sicily. Many school officials with Fascist backgrounds have been dismissed. The work of the teachers is checked and schoolbooks are studied carefully. Many books have been destroyed and others have been purged of certain Fascist contents. The vast job of preparing new textbooks for a non-Fascist Italian school system has been entrusted to committees of prominent Italians, under the leadership of Major Carleton W. Washburne, formerly superintendent of schools at Winnetka, Illinois.

In Norway

Because of the German occupation and the difficulties it has imposed on the Norwegian school system, children in many communities have missed at least one and a half years of schooling during the four years that have elapsed since the invasion of Norway, says a

(Continued on page 144)

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News Notes

(Continued from page 142)

Report recently released in London. Throughout the country school buildings have fallen into disrepair. Labor and materials for proper maintenance, to say nothing of new construction, have not been available. In the cities the biggest and best school buildings have, as a rule, been requisitioned by the Germans for barracks, hospitals and other quarters and will have to be extensively "reconverted" before they can be used as schools again. This seizure of school buildings has resulted in one of the most serious handicaps to the educational system. Small towns with five or six schools have been permitted ordinarily to retain only one or two for school use.

The children themselves are beset with other problems, such as getting to and from their

out-of-the-way classrooms. For the most part they have had to get along with made-over things or with clothes that have been patched and repatched. Wooden-soled shoes are common and elders observe that such footwear is having an injurious effect on the gait and general health of the children. Some children cannot escape being affected by the uncertainty of the times, many of them being burdened with worries about parents, brothers and other relatives or friends who have been arrested by the Nazis or who have fled from the country.

One Norwegian educator who recently arrived in London from occupied Norway states that despite all handicaps the Norwegian schools are carrying on. "The explanation," he said, "is that all parties, not least the youngsters themselves, have the determination to overcome the difficulties and to carry out the classroom work in good spirit."

In Poland

An article by Ann Su Cardwell in the education section of *Christian Science Monitor* some time ago gives some revealing facts and figures on education in Poland:

When the Nazis swept into Poland they immediately abolished all high schools and institutions of higher learning. Moreover, the 29,000 elementary schools in Poland in 1938-1939 were at once greatly reduced. At present they number about 1,000. These schools are indescribably crowded and the equipment is almost non-existent. There are instances where four classes occupy one room and where two teachers conduct lessons at the same time. It is estimated that thirty per cent of the teachers of pre-war Poland have perished or have been deported and that by the end of another year fifty per cent will have been lost to the profession. Malnutrition, which becomes plain starvation, and hardships that fill every Polish life in Poland today are taking a frightful toll both of the teachers and the taught.

Faced with this situation, the Poles, past masters in underground activities through the experience of their long subjection to Russia, Prussia and Austria, turned again to secret educational work. The largest enrolment in underground schools is naturally in the cities. In Warsaw during 1943 it reached sixty per cent of that of pre-war days. Considering the large number of young people and children who have been killed or who have perished of starvation or disease, and the terribly large number who have been deported to the Reich for labor, that is something to note with pride.

Federal Aid, S.637

On September 21 the Senate Committee on Education and Labor again reported out and recommended for passage Senate Bill 637 without the Langer amendment. This action means that Federal Aid to Education is again before the Senate for debate and a vote.

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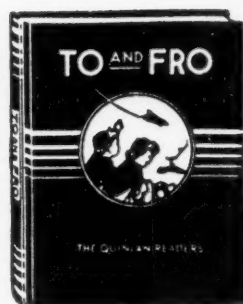
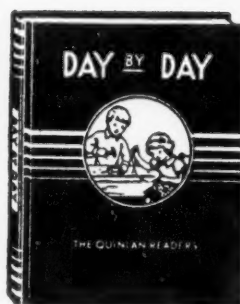
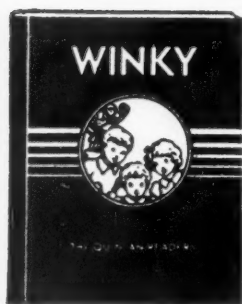
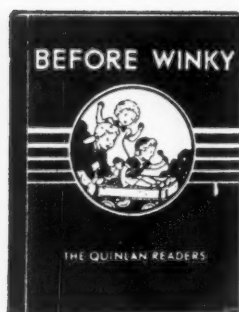
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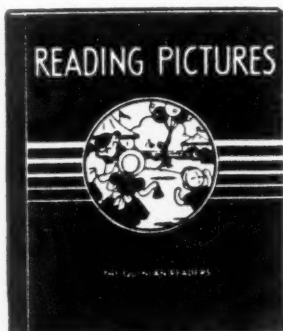
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